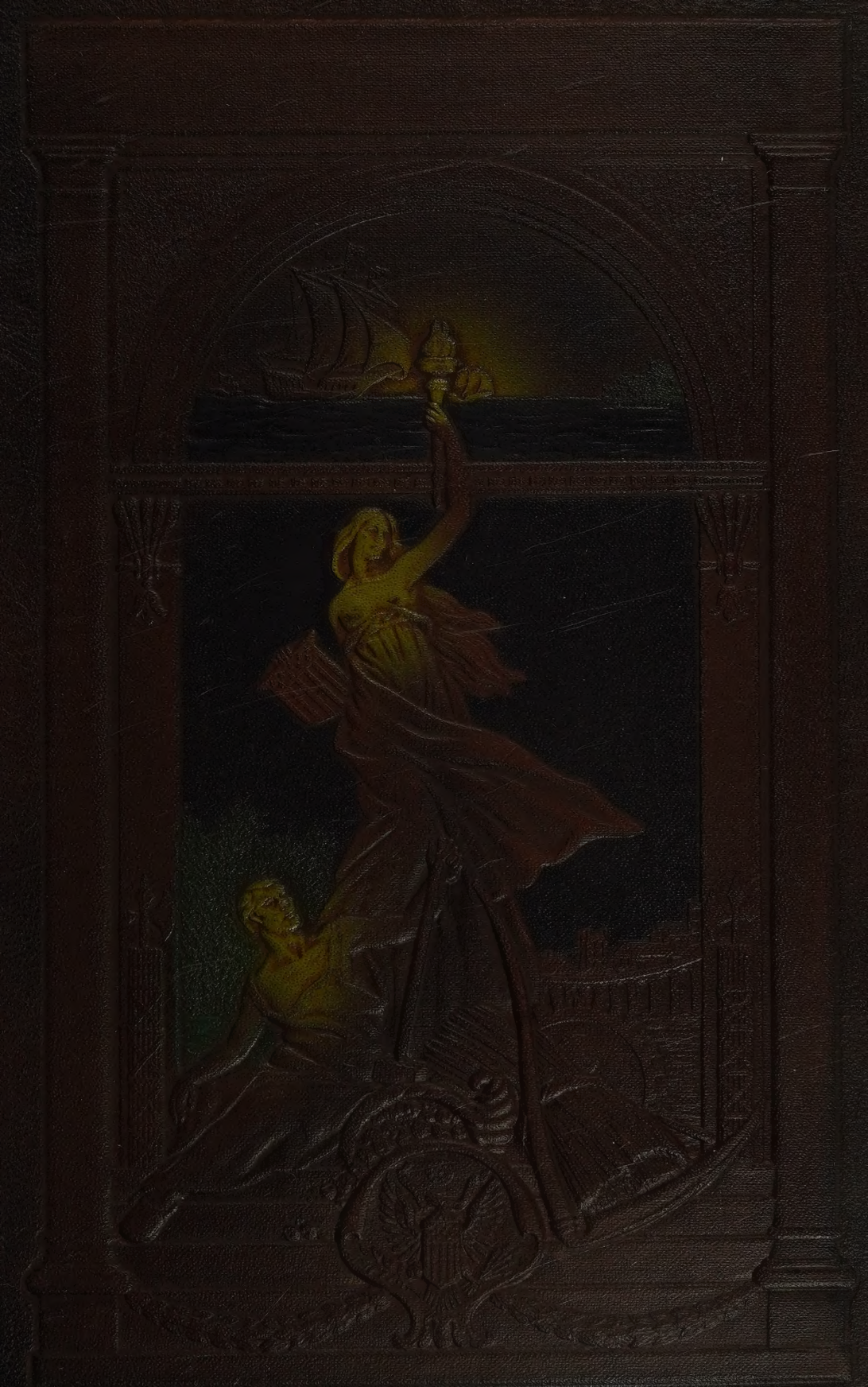

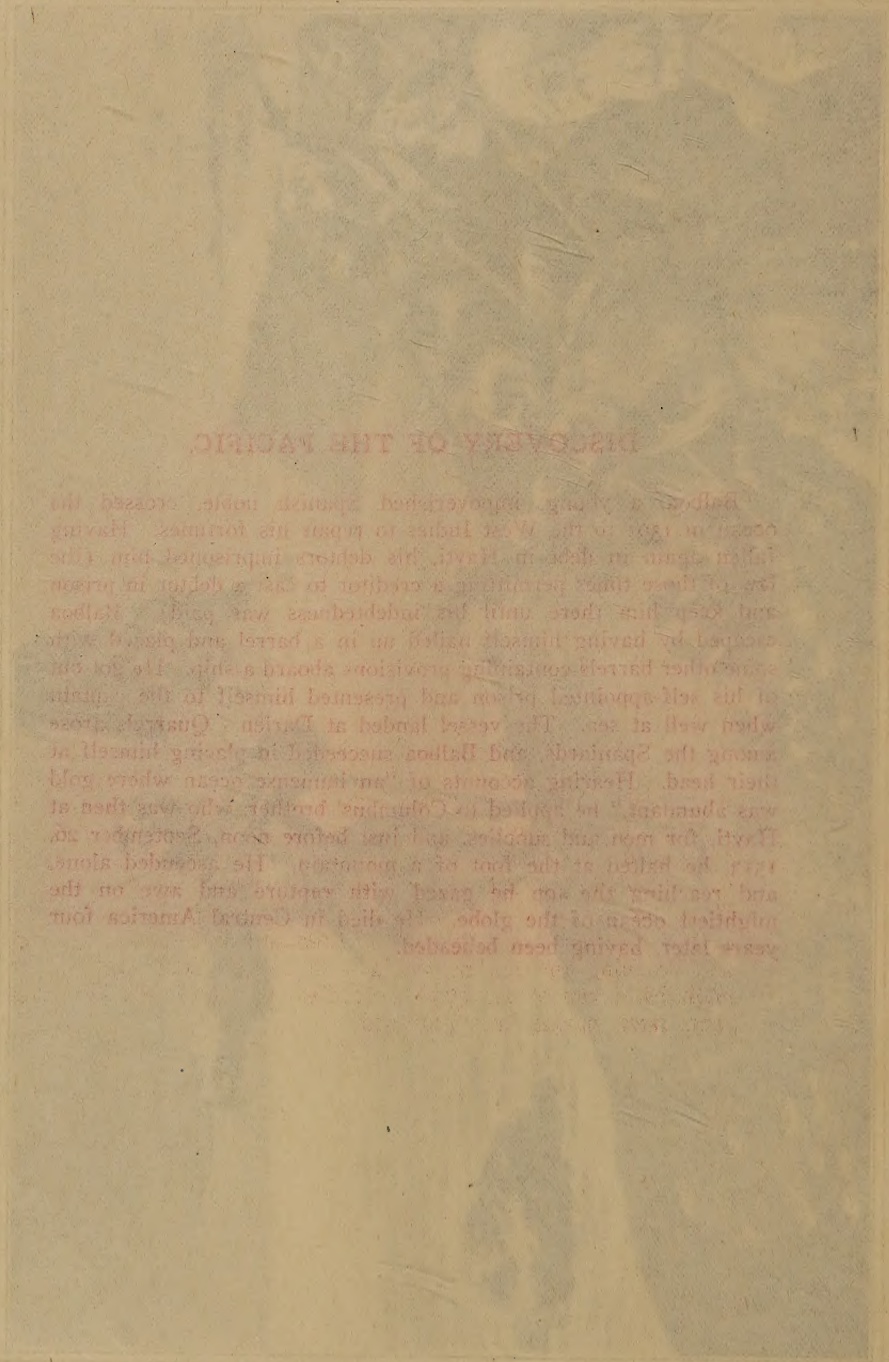

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From the Discovery of America to the Present Time

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By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES" "YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", "THE ECLECTIC PRIMARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", ETC.

ILLUSTRATORS

C. M. Relyea, H. A. Ogden, J. Steeple Davis, Warren Sheppard, W. H. Lippincott, A. B. Doggett, De Cost Smith, W. P. Snyder, Gilbert Gaul, W. C. Fitler, C. Kendrick, Joseph Gleeson and others

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CINCINNATI, OHIO

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THE DUTCH SURRENDER NEW AMSTERDAM Sept. 8. 1664

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INTRODUCTION

THE History of the United States of America is the most important section in the annals of the human race. No other paragraph in the vast story of mankind possesses so rich an interest; no other is so full of promise, of prophecy, and of inspiration. Many great peoples have successively appeared in the historical tableau of the world; but not the Hindu or the Persian; not the Chaldee or the Greek; not the Egyptian or the Hebrew; not the Roman or the Celt; not even the Teuton, with his prodigious activity and strength, has been able, in Asia, in Africa, or in Europe to create in a century or in ages, a historical product greater or more worthy of admiration than that magnificent result which history has brought as her trophy in the great American Republic.

A World in the Wild

For what was the Western hemisphere before the impact of the white races upon it? It was a vast world in the wild. The three Americas were an unmodified domain of nature, darkened with solitary forests, dappled with great prairies, emphasized with majestic mountains, and traversed by the three mightiest rivers of the globe.

Let us look with a moment's attention, and as from the eagle's aerie, upon the face of the New World at the period of discovery. Only here and there do we find slight traces by which to detect the presence and the work of human beings. We are able to see the City of Mexico, and by close attention we may discover the armies of the Aztecs in the streets. Farther south, we detect in the old Empire of Uxmal the traces of cities and temples. In the highlands of Peru we note the evidences of human work. High up in the

The Aborigines

Andes we discover huge walls of cut stone, and in the basin of Titicaca we see the remains of marvelous structures equal to the stonework of the great races of the East.

As a matter of fact, however, the aborigines were everywhere. Their name and variety were legion. The northern parts of our hemisphere were held by a race rarely, or never, found more than thirty miles from the frozen sea. The Eskimos were then, as they have remained, distinctly a people of the shore. To the south lay the vast forest country of the interior inhabited by the copper-colored races, to whom the mistaken Spaniards gave the name of

THE WORLD IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Indians. No part of the present United States was untraversed by the wild and untutored barbarians, who possessed these territories without reducing them to the civilized condition. A history of the United States must include among its introductory parts a fitting account of the *Aboriginal Races*.

Aryan Descendants

The time came when adventurers of Aryan descent first precipitated themselves on the western shores of the Atlantic. Down to the close of the tenth century men of the white race had, probably, never visited our continents. At that epoch the visitation began. Norse adventurers reached Labrador and New England. They came in the manner of sea-kings. Their venture was heroic; but only a few traces of their presence in America remain to testify of the daring deeds of Herjulfson, Leif the son of Eric, Thorwald, Karlsefne, and the other vikings, who came across the North Atlantic in open ships, wearing their chain-armor and walrus-

A NORSEMAN

tusks and eagle-winged helmets, as described in the Icelandic *Sagas*.

Darkness for a Time

After the episode of the Norsemen in America the curtain, which had been lifted for a moment, fell and rested for several centuries on the world which they had discovered. Destiny had reserved the great work of actual revelation for certain navigators and dreamers whose skill had been acquired in the Mediterranean waters, and whose courage was a remaining strain of the energy and aggressiveness of the Roman race. In the latter half of the fifteenth century the best representatives of that race dwelt in the maritime cities of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Out of these remaining rookeries of the Old World's enterprise, the birds of genius and world-flight at length took wing across the great Atlantic. They reached the islands of the Western seas, and then found lodgment on the shores of the new Atlantis.

The Uplift of the Darkness

The discovery of the New World by Columbus was the most dramatic incident in the secular history of mankind. It may be that in the moral vicissitudes of the race something of heroism or sacrifice more grand and ennobling has occurred; but among the distinctly human events nothing so wonderful and inspiring has ever been witnessed as the uplift of the darkness and the revelation of the dawn on that October morning when "Land Ho!" was the cry from the prow of the *Pinta*.

Before the men of the fifteenth century lay the hitherto-unknown islands in the hitherto-unvisited Western seas. Just beyond was the coast-line of the continent waiting to receive the Aryan visitants, and the institutions and learning which they were to bring with them out of the storehouses of Europe. Among the pearl oysters of Para, the mahogany woods of Central America, the silver mines of Peru, the bright halls of the Montezumas, the flowery coasts of Florida, and the fabulous Indian empires of North America, Hope already saw the realization of all the smothered dreams of the Middle Ages.

The Epoch of Discovery

An adequate recital of the history of our country must needs dwell on the *Epoch of Discovery*. The narrative must carry the reader through our fathers' devious ways of trial and adventure. He must hear of the loss of ships, the avarice of slave captains, the exploits of folly, and the indifference of stupid kings. He must follow in the wake of the Cabots until the shore-line of North America is traced from Labrador to Hatteras. He must note the success of Amerigo Vespucci in having his name bestowed on the Western

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THE SUPREME MOMENT
On the Evening of October 11th, 1492

hemisphere. He must mark the voyages of Cortereal and Verazzano and Da Gama, until the mystery of the sea is solved, and the circumnavigation of the globe is effected by Magellan.

Colonization and Development

Beginning with the foundation of English civilization at Jamestown, in the year 1607, and the still more successful planting of colonies in New England shortly afterward, the student of our national annals enters the *Period of Colonization and Development.* Already the Spanish planting in the South was accomplished. Saint Augustine was founded first, and then Santa Fé. Already the power of Spain had been permanently established in Mexico and Central America; but the earlier footing did not prevail against the superior enterprise and energy of England and France. To these fell the better parts of North America. A New France was created first, then a New England, then a New Netherlands, and a New Sweden. Virginia, lagging for a season and suffering from her Indian wars, began to flourish and expand. The Carolinas were colonized. Pennsylvania was taken by the followers of Penn. There were Huguenots, and Salzburgers, and Catholics. There were representatives of almost every race and creed. Wisdom in some places was interwoven with folly. Liberty was encouraged here, and innocence was persecuted there.

Such was the situation on the Eastern borders of our country in the first half of the eighteenth century, that the right of the strongest must be determined by war. Already the colonists had been compelled to make war on the aborigines who hovered on the borders of every settlement. For a long time there was a frontier-line of conflict between the colonists and the native races. The latter were pressed back farther and farther into the interior. Then arose the portent of a more serious trouble among the representatives of the different European races in America. The French were on the north; they held the valley of the St. Lawrence; they sought to possess themselves also of the valley of the Ohio, and of the still greater valley of the Mississippi. The Spaniards were on the south; they held Spanish Florida. They would fain control the lower Mississippi, and the whole coast of the Gulf as far as Mexico. The English colonists held the central Atlantic border from the St. Croix to the Savannah.

The Warring Nations

Out of this condition arose the *Intercolonial Wars* of the eighteenth century. These were most important in determining the future

TRACK-CHART OF THE FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH CENTURY EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY

destinies of civilization in the Western hemisphere. The colonists represented, in their spirit and purpose, the home nations of Europe. They could not amalgamate because of race prejudices and animosities. The question of supremacy had to be decided by the sword. The home nations came to the rescue, each of its own. The wars that began in the reign of King William were concluded in the first years of the reign of George III with the triumph of the English colonies. France was defeated and expelled from the central regions of the continent. Spain was forced to recede on the south, and to content herself with Florida.

The Inter-Colonial Wars

Before the conclusion of the French and Indian War, serious difficulties had arisen between the local communities in the old thirteen Colonies and the paramount authority of the British Crown. There was the question of taxation, closely allied with the question of local self-government, and with the right of representation in Parliament. Within two years of the conclusion of the conflict referred to, a crisis was reached in the strained relations of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and the British authorities, which threatened imminent war. This condition was soothed and aggravated by turns for a period of ten years, and then, in the spring of 1775, broke out the actual conflict by which the dependency of the English colonies in America on the mother country was broken and finally annulled. This was accomplished partly by a *Patriotic Revolution* ending in a Declaration of Independence, and partly by armed resistance culminating in a war of seven years' duration and the final victory of the rebellious armies.

American Independence

Thus far, namely, to the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the annals of our colonial States lead us through a series of vicissitudes, mostly of a hostile, and finally of a revolutionary character. With the establishment of the American Union by the treaty of 1783, and the subsequent adoption of our constitutional frame of republican government, we entered upon a career of *Peaceable Development as a Nation.* Very soon our progress was broken by a *Second War with the Mother Country.* But this also passed without serious results, and a second great stride over a period of thirty years was taken. American civilization assumed a character of its own. Population poured through the passes of the Alleghenies and spread into the great central valleys. As the result of a brief and victorious *War with Mexico,* the possession of Texas was made secure.

One or Many?

Between the conclusion of our conflict with Mexico and the outbreak of the *Civil War*, a period of more than twelve years elapsed, and then came the great ordeal for the determination of the perpetuity of the Union. The issue involved had existed since the foundation of the government. The peculiar organization of a union composed of thirteen parts, destined in the course of a century to become more than three times as many, left the way open for a bitter controversy relative to our Constitution. Were we many, or were we one? In a sense we were one; in another sense we were many. According to our national motto, we were Many in One. There was both unity and multiplicity; but which principle should predominate over the other? Should sovereignty rest in the Union or rest in the States? It could not rest in both. It must rest in one or the other. For a long time the question ebbed and flowed. Sometimes the discussion was wild; sometimes it was angry. At last the issue came to blows, and the blows to blood. The nation was rent asunder.

"Then armies rose from out the earth,
And great ships loomed upon the sea,
And Liberty had second birth
In blood and fire and victory!"

Age of the Epic and the Tragedy

If the period of our Revolution be designated in American history as the heroic age, then must the period of our Civil War be designated as the age of the epic and the tragedy. Never before on these continents, and rarely or never before in the history of mankind, have such scenes been witnessed. The defiant Confederacy was girt at length with a rim of fire. Around the circuit the Union armies beat with prodigious assaults, sometimes repelled and sometimes breaking through. The waste of life was appalling; the destruction of property was indescribable; there was havoc on earth and sulphurous smoke in the heavens. Gradually the rim of fire narrowed until only a few States were pent within the circle. The pressure of the Union arms became overwhelming; and finally after one volcanic blaze the conflagration was quenched.

This miraculous and terrible conflict was marked with the *Development of Great Characters.* Men of the highest genius arose as leaders in battle and cabinet. Tall and strong they were; warriors and statesmen, counsellors and philanthropists, mingled together in the tremendous scene. Not on one side only did the great men of the epoch rise. They of the Confederacy, as well as they of the

Union, exemplified every phase of heroism and sacrifice. Many died. Many came forth alive. Lincoln, the greatest of all, died in the hour of triumph.

Leaders in Battle and Cabinet

"He had been born a destined work to do,
And lived to do it; four long-suffering years—
Ill-fate, ill-feeling, ill-report lived through—
And then he heard the hisses change to cheers."

Of those who emerged from the conflict, some rose to the highest civil stations; a few were eclipsed by misdirected ambitions; some at an early day were called from the scenes of earth. The names of Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Thomas, Farragut, became household words among the nations. The great Lee, honored for a brief season with educational responsibilities, passed away. Gradually the number of the great actors was diminished, until at the close of the century only a few still stood like the solitary oaks of another generation in the smaller forest and underwood of the present.

Great were the *Consequences of the Civil War*. Society in the United States was transformed. There was a unification of the people and a centralization of institutions. A great debt was entailed upon the nation which constituted from that time forth the central fact in a prodigious bonded interest, on which a new financial system was established, and out of which new ideals in industry, manufacture, and commerce were created.

The Logic of the Sword

There is a sense, however, in which the Civil War was the beginning of nationality in our country. The right of States to secede from the Union was destroyed by the unanswerable logic of the sword. The doctrine of Hamilton and Webster was victorious in McLean's house at Appomattox. The doctrine of Hayne and Calhoun was sheathed with the swords of Lee and Longstreet.

As a result of the Civil War the national domain was unified and was speedily divided into prospective States. Star after star was added to the national flag, until all the vast continental territories of the Republic, except Alaska, were admitted to Statehood. The Union became immense. The volume of population rolled on like an ever-broadening river. The closing years of the nineteenth century saw the population existing at the outbreak of the Civil War doubled in number. To this tremendous aggregate of more than seventy millions the nations of the Old World had continued to contribute, until the great cities of the seaboard were converted

U. S. S. "MISSOURI" AND "OHIO" PASSING THROUGH PANAMA CANAL

into a *mélange* of races. The spirit of commerce supervened. The old individual industries were in large measure absorbed by great establishments having labor-saving machinery as their bottom fact and cheapened production as their issue.

Marvelous Growth and Progress

Mingled with this strain of progress—with this paean of battle and ode of physical triumph—was blended the symphony of *Social Evolution.* The nineteenth century must ever be memorable in the annals of mankind for the progress which it made in the arts and sciences. The scientific development of the new nation has been most marvelous of all. There were men still living at the close of the nineteenth century, whose lives antedated the first successful application of steam to water navigation. There were thousands of men in the world who could remember the dubious construction of the first rude railway. There were hundreds of thousands who could recollect the stupid skepticism of the world when Morse stretched his first telegraphic wire from Washington to Baltimore. There were millions who could remember the night when they first beheld the flash of the electric light, and saw the darkness dart away like a frightened specter.

Educational and Humanitarian Work

It remained for the States of the American Union to establish free schools for all, and to provide facilities before unknown for the industrial and scientific education of the people. The nations of the Old World have been obliged to transplant and initiate our system of public education. In like manner new ideals have been followed in the care of the unfortunate. It must be allowed that a great and sincere humanity has been shown in the United States for the protection of those who have suffered in their lives and fortunes at the hands of nature. Here for the blind the asylum and the home have been created. Here the dumb have been taught to speak, and here the cripple has found a way. Here the insane have been rescued from the evil spirits that possessed them, and here the unfortunate defenders of the Union have been gathered into comfortable homes, in the midst of cheerful surroundings, to pass the remainder of their lives in peaceful meditation.

As the nineteenth century drew to a close, events developed which opened a new era in the history of the United States. The condition of affairs in Cuba, and in other Spanish dependencies, near the American borders, long had been a disgrace to Spain and to civilization. Mexico also suffered from Spanish inheritance. As a

Spanish-American War

result of these conditions, the United States found itself involved in the Spanish-American War, which led to the freeing of Cuba, and other islands, from Spanish rule. The friction with Mexico also forced our country to become an active participant in affairs beyond its own border.

So it happened that as time swung wide the gates, and the great republic of the western world had well entered into the twentieth century, undesignedly and unexpectedly, the nation was drawn out of its previous attitude of semi-isolation and independent existence, into an active participation in the administration of affairs in far-away regions, and brought into contact with many peoples. Finally, we found ourselves entangled in the toils of a great European war. This gigantic conflict presented the phase of a world-wide strife between the new and ever-growing spirit of democracy and the ancient régime of decaying autocracy. It is not surprising that the great democracy of the new world, strong, vigorous, and untrammeled, answered the call to lead the nations into the realm of freedom, safety, and peace.

Expansion of the United States

Thus it is seen, that the horizon of the United States had been vastly expanded since the few sparse and isolated settlements of white men began to fringe the Atlantic coast of America in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The country had become not only the mightiest nation on earth in territory, material resources, population, wealth, industrial and social progress, and in intellectual and moral power, but its governmental sway had extended to remote Alaska, into the West Indies, the Isthmus of Panama, the islands of the Pacific, and the far-away Philippines. Now, the exigencies of the Great World War compelled our country to assume a leading rôle in the counsels of the nations. The United States had become *a World Power, perhaps the Mightiest World Power*. Her financial, material, and moral resources gave her the leading rank and paramount influence among the peoples of the earth. It marked a new era upon which our great nation had entered. Will we be able for the task set before us?

It has come to pass in consequence of these new conditions, that the amount of historic material has tremendously increased in these

History-Making Epoch

later days. A single presidential term of four years in the opening decades of the twentieth century presented as much material for permanent record as a whole century in the early colonial days.

This fact presents an additional embarrassment to the historical writer. Out of the great mass of current material, he must, as best he can, select those events and episodes, personalities and performances, that should be placed in the record, and of necessity, must cut the story to the minimum of brevity. To write current history correctly is an impossible task. Indeed the term "current history" is misleading. The perspective of time is required to sift the passing events of any period into their proper values and proportions, and to crystallize them into the eras, epochs, and episodes worthy of permanent record. As the great human drama unfolds from the Past into the Present, the historian finds himself hampered and limited by lack of verified data, and by the passions, prejudices, partisanship, and bias of himself and other writers and recorders of the times. Of necessity, therefore, when the historian reaches current times, the days in which he himself lives and moves, he must lay off his garb as historian and assume the guise of a reporter. Under such circumstances, his work must show blemishes of omission and commission, or of inadequate proportion, of incertitude, which can only be remedied by future writers, aided by the perspective of time, and the impartial award of the future.

Difficulties of Writing Current History

This work has been undertaken with a purpose of presenting a complete record of our history as a nation. Such a purpose, however, can be accomplished only in outline. It is held that the lure of the moving pictures is found in the appeals which they make to the imagination of the beholder. The skeleton of the story is presented upon the screen, and the spectator, as he sits quietly in semi-darkness, fills in the details from his own imagination. The historian is essentially, of necessity, a scenarian; he sets forth in his record, the high points of the human story, which the reader must fill in with details from his own knowledge, and from his collateral reading.

That the story herein presented is perfect—that the reader shall find in this record, without shadow or cloud, the incidents of the

BEARER OF DISPATCHES ATTACKED BY INDIANS

living drama in just proportion, and natural sequence—is more than the writer may hope fully to have attained, though it is not more than he could wish to accomplish. He has striven to comply with the requisites in presenting a complete LIBRARY OF AMERICAN HISTORY, confidently believing in the institutions of his country, and hoping for the betterment, not only of his fellow countrymen, but of all mankind.

Edward J. Ellis.

MAP XIII.

VOYAGE AND DISCOVERY,

SHOWING

THE PRINCIPAL ROUTES

OF

THE EARLY NAVIGATORS.

ARCTIC CIRCLE
ICELAND
Lief Erickson 1001
Cape Farewell
BRITISH ISLES
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
NORTH SEA
NORWAY
SWEDEN
ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
GERMANY
PRUSSIA
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
ITALY
EUROPE
BAY OF BISCAY
Cape Finisterre
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Str. of Gibraltar
Gosnold 1602
1534
1501
1524
Azores
Madeiras
Canaries
1492
TROPIC OF CANCER
Cape Blanco
1519
Magellan
Cape Verde Ids.
De Gama 1498
AFRICA
EQUATOR
40
30
20
10
0
10
20
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
37
47
57
67
77
87
97

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

PERIOD I — DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

CHAPTER I

THE EARLIEST DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA

[*Authorities*: The evidence in support of the visits of Europeans to the New World before Columbus's day is conclusive. Some of the proofs are given in the pages that follow. The reader may be referred to Professor John Fiske's "The Discovery of America"; Payne's "History of the New World, called America"; and to the initial chapters in the standard histories of Bancroft, Hildreth, Lossing and Henry. The proofs of the Norse voyages to this continent are set forth in the text.]

Prehistoric Discoveries of America

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, though not the first white man to set foot on the shores of the New World, will always be regarded as the true discoverer of America. Let us cite a few of the proofs of early visitors.

At Placentia Bay, Newfoundland, may be seen the remains of four tombstones found there by the first authentic comers. The bear, the cross, and the crude inscriptions can still be traced. It was believed for a time that the tombs were those of Basque fishermen. Careful study, however, shows the hieroglyphics to be mixed Gothic and Roman characters, and consequently they are at least six centuries old. Other remains in different sections of our country prove beyond question that the structures were erected at an equally remote period.

Norse Legends and Traditions

Icelandic literature had its birth about 1000 A. D. Are Thorgillsson (1067-1143), known as The Learned, wrote an elaborate history called the "Icelander's Book". Although irrecoverably lost, the treasures of this monumental work were drawn upon by other credible writers. What they have given us may be accepted as an

PERIOD I — DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION 1000 TO 1590 —

authentic record of the visits of the Norsemen* more than four hundred years before Christopher Columbus was born.

These daring sea rovers, leaving their homes in Norway and Denmark, sailed out on the tempestuous Atlantic, and made voyages that extended hundreds of miles, and kept them beyond sight of land for weeks at a time. Some of them made their way to Iceland, to Greenland, and to the American continent.

Ancient Records of Norse Voyages

This was at the beginning of the eleventh century. As proofs of the discoveries of the Norsemen, it may be mentioned that the ancient records of Iceland contain no less than seventeen distinct references to the visits of the Norsemen to this country. These statements relate facts concerning the New World which could never have been obtained except by an actual visit to our shores. Thus they tell about the vine, self-sown corn, the maple, different kinds of game, eider ducks, salmon, the cod, and other fish. What can be more convincing than what is said about the wild vine, of which New England has several native species that do not exist in the less bountiful country of the Norsemen?

Again, Adam of Bremen,† writing in the eleventh century, refers to Iceland as a matter of certain knowledge from Danish sources, and tells about the voyage of the Frieslanders (Holland mariners) to that country in the preceding century. The knowledge of that island was vague, and the guesses at what lay beyond were misty and wide of the truth; but it cannot be denied that much even of this scant information was, in the main, based upon fact.

A shadowy knowledge of the New World reached beyond the

*Norsemen, or Northmen—inhabitants of Northern Europe (Scandinavia), inured to the sea, and actuated by a valorous spirit of war and maritime adventure. Living in the countries of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Northern Germany, the Norse were known at different times by different names. Historically, they were known as Angles or English, when in the fifth century they made their descent on Britain, and as Danes in the ninth century when they once more invaded and partly conquered that country. In the following century, after they had won what is now Normandy from France, and had become a mixed Norman-French race, they again pounced upon England, and under William I. conquered it, giving to the people of the motherland the Norman strain in their veins.

†Adam Bremensis, born in Upper Saxony, an early ecclesiastical historian, and author of a work written in Latin about the year 1075, dealing with the "Propagation of the Christian Faith in North Germany and Scandinavia." An appendix to the work, which is now perhaps best known in a Danish translation, supplies considerable information on the geography of the countries of northern Europe, and of Iceland and Greenland. It also contains a reference to America, or to Vinland, as it was then known, and speaks of it as being discovered by the Norsemen.

ERIC THE RED RELATING HIS DISCOVERIES IN THE NEW WORLD

Norse nations. When their Atlantic voyages ceased, a general belief existed throughout Western Europe, that a large island lay in the North Atlantic to the west of Ireland. This belief must have rested on the traditions of the Norse discovery of America. In what is known as the Pizigani (*pits'i-gan'ee*) maps of 1367, this great island is called Brazil, and under that name it was searched for by the sailors of Bristol a good many years before the Cabots saw it.

The Pizigani Maps, A.D.1367

A more common name, however, for the island was the one given to the whole country beyond Greenland. This, in the Norse language, was Nyja (*nee'ja*) Land, or New Land, and this term was used from the thirteenth century onward. The French chroniclers say that the lands discovered by the Norsemen continued to be called *Terra Neuve* by the Norman and Breton sailors. A strong proof that the Cabots, father and son,* knew of all this, lies in the fact that when these Bristol merchants sailed westward, they not only took the route of the Norsemen, by way of Iceland and Greenland, but used the very name the Icelanders applied to America.

Nyja Land, or New Land

From what has been said, it is clear that the Norsemen, as early as 900 A. D., were among the bravest and the most adventurous sailors in the world. Strong, alert, and skillful, many of them became pirates, who spread terror along the coasts of Europe. Not content with piracy, these marauders of the sea, known as Vikings,† headed their swift vessels, with their high decks, long, sweeping oars, square sails, and oddly-carved prows, out upon the rough Atlantic, leaving their country far beyond sight, while the other timid nations stayed close to their own homes. They sailed up the navigable rivers of the neighboring countries, pillaged and burnt the towns, and took hundreds of prisoners. When a numskull king, named Charles the Simple, ruled France, the Norsemen ascended the river Seine (*sane*) and besieged Paris. The frightened king ceded to

Settlement of Normandy by Norsemen, A. D. 912

*Cabots, The (John and Sebastian), Bristol merchants in the time of Henry VII. of England, who, in the year 1497, discovered Newfoundland and Labrador. The son, Sebastian, became a notable navigator, and founder of the Spanish colonies on the coast of Brazil. In the service of England he made an expedition to Hudson's Bay in search of a northwest passage to the Indies, the will-o'-the-wisp of the period, and also furthered commercial enterprise in the Baltic.

†Vikings–Norse pirates, who in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries were the terror of the coasts of Europe. The name is derived from the *vicks* or inlets of Scandinavia, which harbored the rowing-galleys of these piratical crews, and from which they set out on missions of conquest and plunder. The term *viking* is not to be confounded, as it frequently is, with *sea king*, a person either of royal race or given the title as the valiant commander of a well-equipped galley.

LANDING OF THE NORSEMEN

From the Original Drawing by J. Steeple Davis

them a large district in the north of France, which was afterwards known as Normandy. This was in the year 912 A. D., about the time that the Norsemen began their dangerous voyages over the Atlantic.

One of the most famous of these navigators was Eric the Red (so called because his hair and face were of a fiery color), who settled in Iceland, which had been visited before by a number of his countrymen. On a voyage to the westward, Eric discovered Greenland, and in consequence of a quarrel with some of his people, he made his home in that country. It was Eric who gave it its name, and when he returned to Iceland, he told such glowing stories of the snowy solitude that he persuaded a number of his friends to go back with him.

Eric the Red

The oldest son of Eric was Leif the Lucky, who was as ambitious as his father to become a discoverer. He bought a small ship, provided it with thirty lusty men, and sailed from Greenland in the year 1000, in search of new lands.

Leif the Lucky

IN VINLAND

These stalwart sailors ploughed their way through the icy waters until they descried land containing hills, streams, and forests. After skirting the shore for a while, they landed and looked around them. While there can be no certainty of the spot, it is believed to have been on the coast of Newfoundland.

What they saw was not pleasing, and it is thought that they then sailed southward to Nova Scotia. Favoring winds carried them farther still to the south, and there is little doubt that they were the first white men to look upon New England. It was summer time, and the soft climate, gentle breezes, and rich vegetation elicited many expressions of delight. When they stepped from their

The First (Norse) Landing in New England

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little ship and set out to hunt for wild animals, they found plenty of deer, and an abundance of berries, pleasant to the taste.

Truly, such a favored land must be inhabited, they thought, but they did not see a living person. The ashes of several camp-fires, and the remains of animals that had been eaten, left no doubt on their minds that there were natives in this strange land. The Norsemen built huts and stayed through the winter in New England.

One day in autumn, a servant belonging to the party was missing. When they searched for him, they found him delightfully eating luscious grapes, of which there was an abundance around him. Indeed, they were so plentiful, that Leif named the country Vineland, or Vinland. When he sailed to join his father and friends in Greenland, he took with him bushels of the delicious fruit, and specimens of the different kinds of timber that grew in New England.

THORWALD

Eric had a younger son, Thorwald, as eager as Leif to be a discoverer. He bought the stout little ship of his brother, who helped him to make ready for the voyage, and told him all he had learned about the new country. With thirty companions, Thorwald had no trouble in making his way to New England. The winter of 1003-4 was spent in the same huts that had been built by Leif and his men. Time passed rapidly, for the winter, which seems to have been mild, gave them plenty of opportunity to hunt and fish.

When spring came, Thorwald and a part of his company spent many weeks in exploring the neighboring islands and coasts. It is believed that they visited Rhode Island, Connecticut, and the bay of New York, where, however, they did not see so much as the smoke of a wigwam. The second winter was spent in the huts occupied previously, and the whole company resumed their explorations in the following spring and summer. While thus engaged, their ship was driven ashore by a storm near Cape Cod.

PROBABLE FIRST BLOODSHED BETWEEN THE WHITE MAN AND THE RED

There, for the first time, they came upon a number of natives. There were eight or ten of them, resting under a couple of rude tents. The simple-hearted people had no thought of danger, and surely there should have been none; but the Norsemen crept stealthily forward and assailed them with the utmost fury. Only one managed to elude the cruel swords and dart away unharmed into the woods. He made haste to tell his friends of the bloodthirsty beings who had invaded their country. The natives gathered in large numbers, and attacked the Norsemen with great bravery. The sailors were forced

to retreat to their boats, fighting as they went. An arrow pierced the breast of Thorwald, and wounded him mortally, but no one else was hurt. The body of the leader was buried, and his companions returned to Vineland. The following spring the whole colony, much discouraged, sailed back to Greenland.

Eric's third son, Thorstein, with twenty-five companions and his newly wedded wife, sailed for Vineland. A storm drove them ashore

FIRST MEETING BETWEEN THE NORSEMEN AND THE NATIVES

in Baffin Bay while they were still within Arctic waters. There the company suffered greatly, and most of them, including Thorstein, died. The survivors returned to Greenland, and later on the widow of Thorstein married a wealthy citizen of Norway, who settled in Greenland. They and other couples visited Vinland, and planted a colony near the spot first visited by Leif. The founders of the colony finally returned to Iceland, while the others were joined by new emigrants, among whom was Freydisa, the daughter of Eric.

Thorstein

Freydisa

This woman was artful and self-willed, with a temper as fierce as that of a wild animal. She caused quarrels and wranglings which

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ended in the death of thirty persons, several of whom were killed with her own hand. Finally, the colony was so torn by discord that all returned to Greenland.

Here ends the history of Norse discovery in the New World. All the settlements they planted vanished, leaving scarcely a trace behind; though it is surmised that the massive stone tower at Newport, R. I., supported on its seven columns, was built by the Norsemen. While it has been proved that the Norsemen visited the New World, there are legends of other visits which may or may not be true. In some of the Mexican histories, the claim is made that a number of Buddhist monks crossed the ocean from China, and settled in Mexico as early as the fifth century.* Another legend makes a Welsh prince discover America at the close of the twelfth century. Future researches may show that these and other claims have a basis of truth; but, as yet, the traditions are too vague to be accepted.

Legends of other Visitors to the New World

The Norsemen vanished from the New World as utterly as if they had never set foot in it, and the vast continent lay wrapped in solemn loneliness and desolation, while the rolling years stretched into centuries. Great changes took place in the Old World, where, amid wars and rumors of wars, thrones were overturned, conquests made, and, in the general upheaval, those nations that had been the stronger went down, and other kingdoms were reared upon their ruins. Portugal, Spain, France, Holland, and England fought their way to the front, and, though still full of vigor, the Norsemen gradually lost the power that had enabled them to dominate the nations around them. The invention, first, of gunpowder, † and then of printing, ‡ wrought wonderful revolutions, and it was impossible that events should continue to unfold themselves without further inquiry and exploration in regard to that vast portion of the world which was still practically unknown to Europe.

*There would seem little reason to call in question this claim, so far, at least, as relates to the Asiatic origin of the native races on this Continent. In Peru, and in Mexico at the time of the Spanish Conquest under Cortes, in 1519-21, the Spaniards found organized nations, such as the Aztecs, with social systems of an Asiatic type. How these peoples originally came to the Continent is still a problem; though it is surmised that they crossed the Pacific by way of Behring Straits, from the ancient hives of the race in the Far East.

†First used in implements of war early in the fourteenth century.

‡Printing from movable metal type practically dates from the middle of the fifteenth century. A German, named Gutenberg, is credited with being the inventor.

DEPARTURE OF THORWALD

CHAPTER II

THE ABORIGINES OF AMERICA*

[*Authorities*: Since the period of European discovery and settlement in the New World, grim are the annals that relate the dealings of the white man with the red. It has been the hard fate of these dusky children of the woods and plains to bear the brunt of contact with the rival European colonists, or with the commercial Nimrods of the period of the fur trade. Notwithstanding the savagery they displayed in this contact, for which in honesty it must be said they are not wholly to blame, the Indian in his tribal state is an interesting and often picturesque figure in the economical and social life of the continent. Important ethnological studies have been made of him by writers in the American Ethnological Society Transactions, and in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, as well as in the works of Gallatin, Brinton, Hale, Schoolcraft, and Catlin. An interesting account of the red man will also be found in Vol. I. of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," and in Bancroft's "Native Races of the Pacific States." For an account of the early mound-builders and cave-dwellers see Short's "North Americans of Antiquity," and Baldwin's "Ancient America." For popular narratives see also Parkman's "Jesuits in North America," Ellis's "The Red Man and the White Man in North America," and Prescott's entertaining and instructive works, "The Conquest of Mexico" and "The Conquest of Peru."]

HAVING learned the principal facts about the first white men who set foot in the New World, our interest naturally turns to those whom the Norsemen found here at the time of their visit. Since the discovery of Columbus, these people have borne the name of Indians. Where did they come from? Nobody accurately knows. There have been any number of attempted explanations, many of them supported by ingenious arguments; but the one now most generally believed is that at some remote period in the past, their ancestors made their way across the narrow Behring Strait from Asia, and, migrating southward, gradually overspread the continents of both North and South America.

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*The first or primitive inhabitants of a country.

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Leaving out the Eskimos, a general resemblance is noted among the various Indian tribes, which points to the probability of a common origin. The color of the skin, the long coarse black hair, the dark eyes, the facial contour, the shape of the head, and the mental and physical characteristics (although showing in some cases considerable variation) have a similarity which no observer can fail to note.

THE ESKIMOS

Indian Languages

The Indians of the two continents are known to make use of more than two thousand dialects and four hundred languages, but the members of each tribe are readily recognized. These tribes, some of which number only a few hundreds, while others number thousands, are so numerous that it is difficult to classify them. Different systems have been employed by ethnologists,* but perhaps the best of these divides the Indians who occupied our country as follows:

The Panis-Arapahoe family, consisting of (1), the Panis or Pawn-

*Those interested in the science which treats of the physical features, language, manners, religion, and other characteristics of the various races that compose the human family.

ees; (2), the Arapahoes; (3), the Jetans, who were called Comanches by the Spanish.

The Columbian family, including (1), the Tushapaws; (2), the Multnomah; (3), the Chahala; (4), the Snake, or Flatheads; (5), the Shoshones; (6), the Chopunish; (7), the Sokulks; (8), the Eshelutes; (9), the Enishurs; (10), the Chilluckittequaws.

The Sioux-Osage family, including (1), the Sioux (*soo*), or Dakotas, a numerous and powerful family, consisting of the Dakotas proper and the Assiniboines, the latter living in alliance with the Chippewas; (2), the Omawhas, or Mahas, consisting of several tribes; (3), the Mandans; (4), the Mawsash, or Osages, divided into three tribes.

The Mobile-Natchez, or Floridian family, comprising six independent branches, each subdivided into several tribes; (1), the Natchez, now almost extinct, whose members are scattered among the Creeks and Choctaws; (2), the Muskohges, or Creeks, divided into the Upper and Lower Creeks (the latter are known as Seminoles), the family being the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes; (3), the Chickasaws; (4), the Choctaws; (5), the Cherokees.

AN INDIAN WARRIOR

The Algonquin, Huron (Wyandot) and Iroquois family, the two former having their homes in what is now the Dominion of Canada, and the latter having their hunting-grounds and their abode chiefly along the valley of the Mohawk, in New York State.

The Lenape family, including (1), the Shawanoes; (2), the Kickapoos; (3), the Sacs, Sawhees, and Ottogamies, known also as the Foxes; (4), the Miamis; (5), the Illinois; (6), the Pottawatomies;

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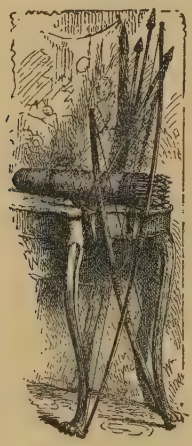
(7), the Winnebagoes; (8), the Delawares, or Lenni-Lenape; (9), the Mohicans; (10), the Abenaquis; (11), the Micmacs; (12), the Algonquins; (13), the Chippewas; (14), the Knistenaux; (15), the Nenawehks; (16), the Abbitibes; (17), the Chippewyans; (18), the Carrurs. The Apaches, the fiercest and most terrible of warriors, are members of the Mexican family.



INDIAN BOWS AND ARROWS

The Aborigines Not Dying out

One of the most common of errors is the belief that the aborigines are dying out, and that the day will come when, like the buffalo, they will vanish from our continent. Such is not likely to be the fact. There is little doubt that at the beginning of the twentieth century there were more Indians in the United States than ever before, the number (excluding those of Canada and Alaska) being about a quarter of a million. While tribes have disappeared, in some instances without leaving a survivor behind, others have increased in number; so that, as has been said, the total exceeds that of the fifteenth century, and probably surpasses the number that were in America when one of the red men buried an arrow in the breast of the cruel Thorwald, nearly a thousand years before.

The Indians were hunters and fishermen. The horse, cow, sheep, and swine were never seen by them until brought to this country by the white man. They raised maize and a few simple vegetables from the rich ground, which needed only a scratch to vivify or make productive the seed dropped into it. The women did the work, while their husbands smoked their pipes, lolled on buffalo skins in the rude wigwam, hunted in the woods, fished in the streams, or sought, with internecine fury, the scalps of other warriors.

Knowing nothing originally of firearms, their weapons were bows, arrows, spears, tomahawks, knives, and clubs. Stone was used for tomahawks, bone for knives, and the sinews of deer for strings for their bows. The Indian had little muscular development, but possessed great endurance, and could stalk through the woods and tramp across the prairie for days and weeks without weariness. General Crook has seen Apache scouts trot fifteen hundred feet up the side of a mountain, without showing any increase of respiration or sign of fatigue. The Indians trained their bodies from infancy to repress

A PUEBLO VILLAGE

From the Original Drawing by W. C. Fitler

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all expression of pain, even when suffering the tortures of death. They underwent hunger, thirst, and fatigue without a murmur. While they showed great respect for old age among themselves, they were merciless in war, and inflicted frightful cruelties upon their prisoners.

AMERICAN INDIANS

Indian Skill in Woodcraft

Taught to follow the shadowy trail through the labyrinths of the wilderness, to outwit their enemies in all manner of subtlety, they attained a perfection of woodcraft that was almost marvelous. The exploits of some of the red men in this respect seem incredible. When the mongrel Seminoles, with but a handful of warriors, were fighting our Government, they hid their women and children amongst the everglades of Florida, so that the trained white scouts sent to

hunt for them failed to find the slightest trace of them during a search lasting for weeks and even months.

The Indian was moody, of melancholy temperament, often treacherous, and of an implacable, unforgiving disposition. His mind was poetical at times, and some of the chiefs, like Tecumseh, displayed the highest form of natural eloquence.

Religious Beliefs

The Indian believed in a good and evil Spirit, and his faith was firm that in the happy hunting-grounds in the after-life he would roam again, and spend the years in hunting the game that would be always abundant. Accordingly, when he died, his weapons were buried with him, and when he owned a faithful dog, he was placed beside his master, that they might bear one another company in the land of spirits. The dead were generally buried in a sitting posture, facing the east, though in other instances the remains were placed on platforms, elevated beyond the reach of prowling beasts of prey. The Indians had many interesting customs and ceremonies, which could be seen in later times by those who visited them; though, among the still pagan tribes, some of their practices were revolting.

But earlier in point of time than the aborigines, as we know them, was another most interesting people—the mound-builders. Who were they and whence came they?

The Cliff-dwellers

No one can tell much about them, although they have left thousands of mounds, sometimes called ossuaries, or bone-pits, of the most curious formation, and with many strange relics within them. The cliff-dwellers in Mexico and Peru built large cities, with towering temples and houses of stone, laid paved roads, reduced their language to permanent form, and carved beautiful designs in the solid rock.

Dr. H. C. Nelson returned to New York early in 1916 from a six months' exploration of the ruins of prehistoric dwellings in the Southwest. The expedition under his charge was organized by the American Museum of Natural History, and he secured more than a thousand specimens during his four years of research, which throw a most interesting light on prehistoric times.

Dr. Nelson found large communal houses that had been from two to five stories high and which contained several hundred rooms. Most of the ruined villages showed a series of these huge dwellings fashioned on a quadrangular plan, doubtless arranged with a view of defence. The explorer secured between three and four hundred

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negatives in Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona. In an area of 1600 square miles he located sixty-eight pueblo ruins in addition to lesser ones and sites of ancient villages. He brought to light at least six different types of pottery, which illustrate that number of successive stages or periods of development, and furnish the key to the dim prehistoric past.

Among the notable discoveries made by Dr. Nelson was a series of mural paintings in black, red and brown, on the walls of one of the ruined dwellings, which date beyond the Spanish occupation. Paintings were found in other dwellings, which, although crude, show considerable artistic skill. These mural pictures are the first found in the ruined houses of the Southwest. The Indian tribes of to-day in that region live in the pueblos, the population ranging from 100 to 1,700.

Inscription Rock

INSCRIPTION ROCK, NEAR ZUNI, N. M.

In the Rio Grande Valley of New Mexico are numbers of the most ancient sites, the ruins varying in size, and containing from 500 to 3,500 rooms, or even more. The largest is the San Marcos, covering a space of 1,600 square feet. In this immense ruin are forty-four buildings containing from 3,000 to 4,000 rooms. Another well known ruin is at Aztec, New Mexico. It is in good condition, especially the lower story which shows fine ceilings and handsomely made doorways. Some of the huge timbers must have been hauled fully sixty miles from the forest where they were grown.

At Chaco Canyon is located the famous Pueblo Bonito, semicircular at the base and once five stories high. In the neighborhood

are eighteen additional sites with others of lesser dimensions. Entering the Zuni country beyond the Carriso Mountains, the explorers came to the celebrated Inscription Rock upon which are the dates and inscriptions carved by early Spanish conquistadores.

Who those ancient people were is a question that remains to be answered by the archaeologists. Dr. Nelson thinks they came from the South, the evidence of their culture giving good reason for such a view.

The Mound-builders

At first, the belief obtained that the mound-builders were a race distinct from the Indians; but it is now generally supposed that they were simply ancestors of those people. At the time of the discovery of America, mound-building was carried on by several tribes, and many of the mounds are of comparatively recent origin. They are found in various parts of the continent and from the Lakes to

RELICS OF THE MOUND BUILDERS

the Gulf; through the Mississippi Valley is an almost endless succession of earthworks, crowned with forest trees, that must have been accumulating for centuries. A mound, probably constructed for religious ceremonies, or as a monument, opposite St. Louis, covers eight acres and is ninety feet high. The pits where the mound-builders dug copper may still be seen in the mining region on the southern shore of Lake Superior.

Ohio Earth-mounds

Ohio is richer than any other section in these mysterious earthworks, fully ten thousand of them being scattered through the State. Remembering that their builders had no beasts of burden or draught, no metal tools that could be used in their construction, that all the material must have been carried in baskets, some idea of the enormous number of men employed and the labor involved may be formed. Mr. M. C. Read, of Hudson, Ohio, who has spent years in the in-

ANCIENT BURIAL-MOUND

vestigation of these curious hillocks and their contents, says: "On some of the highest hills of Richland and Knox counties are lookout or signal mounds, similar to those which may be traced from these places southward to the Ohio River. In some of these places small mounds have been built, with much labor, of stones brought from the valleys below, and nearly all show the results of surface fires. Many of these, and perhaps all of them, may be the work of modern Indians; as it is well known that they were in the habit of telegraphing to scattered members of their tribes, or allies, by the smoke of fires kindled at such places".

It is quite likely that at no distant day the mystery of the mound-builders will be fully explained. Nor is it at all unlikely that some boy or girl who reads these pages may be the one that will perform this great service for mankind. On this interesting topic, Mr. O. C. Marsh, F.G.S., in a paper read before the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, in 1866, thus describes the result of excavations in one of these Ohio earth-mounds.

Mound Excavations

"The mound was conical in form, about ten feet in height, and eighty in diameter at the base, these being about the average dimensions of the burial mounds in that vicinity. It was situated on the summit of a ridge, in the midst of a stately forest. . . . The mound stood quite alone, nearly half a mile from its nearest neighbor, and about three miles from the large earthworks already mentioned. . . . An excavation, about eight feet in diameter, was first made from the apex of the mound, and after the surface soil was removed, the earth was found to be remarkably compact, probably owing to its having been firmly trodden down when deposited. At five and a half feet below the surface, where the earth became less difficult to re-

move, a broken stone pipe was found which had evidently been long in use. It was made of a very soft limestone, containing fragments of small fossil shells, apparently of a cretaceous species.

"About seven feet from the top of the mound a thin white layer was observed which extended over a horizontal surface of several square yards. Near the centre of this space, and directly under the apex of the mound, a string of more than one hundred beads of native copper was found, and with it a few small bones of a child about three years of age. The beads were strung on a twisted cord of coarse vegetable fibre, apparently the inner bark of a tree, and this had been preserved by the salts of the copper, the antiseptic properties of which are well known. The beads were about one-fourth of an inch long and one-third in diameter, and no little skill had been displayed in their construction. They were evidently made without the aid of fire, by hammering the metal in its original state; but the joints were so neatly fitted that in most cases it was difficult to detect them. On the same cord, and arranged at regular intervals, were five shell beads of the same diameter, but about twice as long as those of copper. All had apparently been well polished, and the necklace when worn must have formed a tasteful and striking ornament.

Relics found in the Ossuaries.

"About a foot below the remains just described, and a little east of the centre of the mound, were two adult human skeletons, lying one above the other, and remarkably well preserved. The interment had evidently been performed with great care. The heads were towards the east, slightly higher than the feet, and the arms were carefully composed at the sides. Directly above these skeletons was a layer of reddish earth, apparently a mixture of ashes and burned clay, which covered a surface of about a square yard. Near the middle of this space was a small pile of charred human bones, the remains of a skeleton which had been burned immediately over those just described. The fire had evidently been continued for some time, and then allowed to go out; when the fragments of bone and cinders that remained were scraped together, and covered with earth. . . .

"Quite a number of implements, of various kinds, were found with the human remains in this grave. Near its eastern end, where the detached bones had been buried, were nine lance and arrow-heads, nearly all of the same form, and somewhat rudely made of flint and chert. . . . These weapons are of peculiar interest, as it appears they are the first that have been discovered in a sepulchral mound, al-

Weapons and other Implements found

From the Original Drawing by Jules Turcas

HIAWATHA, FOUNDER OF THE IROQUOIS LEAGUE

though many such have been carefully examined. They show that the custom—so common among the Indians of this country—of burying with the dead their implements of war or the chase, obtained occasionally, at least among the mound-builders. . . .

"One of the most remarkable features in the mound was the large number of skeletons it contained. With one or two exceptions, none of the burial mounds hitherto examined has contained more than a single skeleton which unquestionably belonged to the mound-builders, while in this instance parts of at least seventeen were exhumed. Another point of special interest in this mound is the evidence it affords that the regular method of burial among the mound-builders was sometimes omitted, and the remains interred in a hurried and careless manner. It is not unlikely that, in this instance, some unusual cause, such as pestilence, or war, may have made a hasty interment necessary. The various implements and remains of animals, found with these skeletons also deserve notice, as they far exceed in number and variety any hitherto discovered in a single mound. They prove, moreover, that if in this instance the rites of regular burial were denied the deposited, their supposed future wants were amply provided for. The contents of one part of the cist (which is itself a very unusual accompaniment of a mound) appear to indicate that the remains of those who died at a distance from home were collected for burial, sometimes long after death. The interesting discovery of weapons, found with these detached bones, would seem to imply that in this case the remains and weapons of a hunter or warrior of distinction, recovered after long exposure, had been buried together."

Buried Weapons

Returning to the American Indians, as they are now known to us, it may be said that the most interesting group on the American continent at the beginning of the twentieth century, as they were when the country was discovered, are the Iroquois or "Six Nations." No other tribal league similar to theirs ever existed, and it has been claimed that had the discovery of America been postponed for a hundred years, the "Romans of the New World" would have become masters of the country between the two great oceans, and north of Mexico. Originally five nations or tribes, they added the Tuscaroras of the South to their league early in the eighteenth century, and continued to expand and grow for a century after the first settlement by white men. They steadily gained control of the immense territories between the hills and valleys of New England and the

The Iroquois League

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Mississippi River, and from the Carolinas to a point beyond the northern shores of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. One of the most striking facts connected with the increase of power on the part of the Iroquois was the smallness of their numbers compared with the enormous extent of territory which they overran and conquered. At no time could they muster a fighting force of more than 2,500 warriors. In 1660, when a careful computation was approximately made of them by European observers, the Iroquois numbered about 11,000 souls. The census of 1890 showed that they had then increased to 15,870. This count includes those living in the West, in the Dominion of Canada, and in the State of New York.

When the white men arrived on our shores, the Iroquois confederacy consisted of the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca nations, to which, as already stated, the Tuscaroras were afterwards added. They conquered the Algonquin tribes, which in the valley of the St. Lawrence, in New England, and in the middle and western regions, had up to that time inclosed the red men of New York in a girdle of fire. The secret of this mighty power lay in their organization, which was wonderful in its wisdom and completeness. In the heart of the New York wilderness they founded a barbarian republic, whose methods and bonds of union might well serve as a model in many respects for civilized nations.

The wampum records have given us the traditions of the formation of the Iroquois league. The members were called Kanonsionni, the builders of the "long house," whose eastern door was kept by the Mohawks and the western by the Senecas, while the great council-fire was kindled, and the capital placed among the Onondagas.

Hiawatha, the Wise Man

Hiawatha, the wise man who founded the League, used these words to the assembled warriors on the hill-slope north of Onondaga Lake: "We have met, members of many nations, many of you having come a great distance from your homes, to provide for our common safety. To oppose by tribes, or single-handed, our foes from the north, would result in our destruction. We must unite as a common band of brothers, and then we shall be safe. You, Mohawks, sitting under the shadow of great trees, whose roots sink deep into the earth, and whose branches spread over the vast country, shall be the first nation, because you are warlike and mighty. You, Oneidas, a people who lean your bodies against the everlasting stone that cannot be moved, shall be the second nation, because you give good counsel.

You, Onondagas, who have your habitation by the side of the great mountain and are overshadowed by its crags, shall be the third nation, because you are greatly gifted in speech, and powerful in war. You, Cayugas, whose dwelling-place is the dark forest, and whose home is everywhere, shall be the fourth nation, because of your superior cunning in hunting. And you, Senecas, a people who live in the open country and possess much wisdom, shall be the fifth nation, because you understand the art of making cabins, and of raising corn and beans. You five great and mighty nations must combine and have one common interest, and then no foe shall be able to subdue us. If we unite, the Great Spirit will smile upon us. Brothers, these are the words of Hiawatha. Let them sink into your hearts."

Date of Organization

The organization of the Iroquois is believed to have taken place about the close of the sixteenth century. Its object, as explained by Hiawatha, was mutual defence and safety. In domestic affairs the nations were distinct and independent, but bound closely together by ties of honor in all matters affecting the public good. Each nation had its chief sachems, or civil magistrates, with about two hundred subordinate officers, besides fifty possessing hereditary rights. War chiefs were chosen in special instances, and, if the case were urgent, these war chiefs took the place of the sachems in the control of affairs. While military service was voluntary, it would have taken more courage for an able-bodied man to refuse to go upon the war-path than to face any danger, for the least shrinking on the part of a warrior brought upon him everlasting disgrace.

President of the League

The League had a president, with six advisers, and could summon representatives from the tribes when concerted action was believed to be necessary. It may be said that the principle of what in modern days became known as civil service reform prevailed among the Iroquois, for merit alone secured office. Oho-to-da-ha, a venerable Onondagan, was the first president of the League, and the mat whereon he sat, and the buckskin threads upon which are strung the beads that commemorate his election, are still reverently preserved.

Woman suffrage existed among the Iroquois, as it does to-day among some of the tribes. The matrons sat in council and voted on the question of peace or war. This is not strange, when it is remembered that the Iroquois trace descent through the female. All the sisters of a warrior's mother are equally his mothers, and the children of his mother's sisters are his brothers and sisters.

The Tribes or Clans

More elaborate means were devised for welding in one strongly knit confederacy the Six Nations than that of a simple federal bond. Among the Iroquois the name tribe did not mean nation. They had eight tribes or clans, known as the Wolf, the Bear, the Turtle, the Snipe, the Beaver, the Deer, the Horse, and the Heron. The totem, or mark, of each was signed to all treaties. Each tribe was divided into five clans, and one of these was located in every nation. Thus the Iroquois were interwoven with each other in what seemed to be an indivisible bond. A tribe was considered one family, and marriage between its members was not allowed. The wisdom of this system of union was shown in the fact that the League never fell into disorder or became disintegrated by anarchy. The bonds that bound all the nations together into one great family were complete.

In 1607, Captain John Smith met a band of Iroquois, in their canoes, in the upper part of Chesapeake Bay, on their way to the dominions of Powhatan (*pow-at-an'*). Quick to learn the use of fire arms, they pushed their conquests rapidly. In 1643, they nearly destroyed the Eries and entered northern Ohio. In 1648-9, they decimated the Hurons. A quarter of a century later, they controlled the whole country between Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario, and the northern bank of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Ottawa. In 1680, they invaded Illinois as far as the Mississippi. Soon afterwards, the Cherokees, on the Tennessee, and the Catawbas, of South Carolina, surrendered to the "Romans," who pushed their domain into Michigan and the region south of Lake Superior. In the colonial wars, the Iroquois sided with the English, as the Algonquins sided with the French, to which fact we may, in some degree, attribute the final overthrow of French dominion in this country. The Revolution subjected the League to its greatest strain. The protests of the Oneidas divided the confederacy, and the Six Nations, as nations, did not join with the British, though there were many volunteers, as will be shown further on.

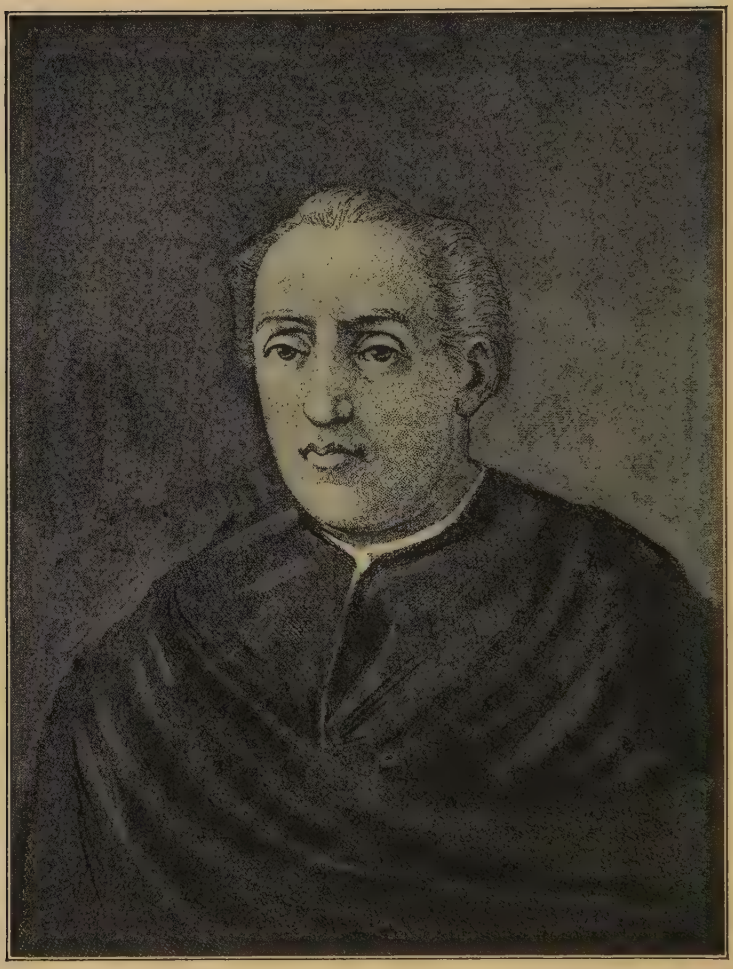
The Six Nations of Today

The latest statistics of the Six Nations show that in our day more than 8,000 live in Canada, and about 6,000 at St. Regis and other places in New York. The five civilized tribes in Oklahoma are: Cherokees, 41,796; Chickasaws, 10,989; Choctaws, 26,612; Creeks, 18,700; Seminoles, 3,119; making a total of 101,216. With these are included 23,381 colored freedmen, and 2,582 intermarried whites. The Indian appropriation made by Congress for the fiscal year

LAMENTATION FOR SLAIN WARRIOR

ending June 30, 1913, was $4,015,720. The Government was at that time supporting 111 boarding schools and 223 day schools. In addition to these, 57 mission schools were conducted by various churches and religious societies. The Government expenditures in this field from 1789 to 1913, inclusive, were $540,863,691.53.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the New York Iroquois occupied seven reservations, whose estimated territorial value was nearly two million dollars. As an evidence of their advancement in civilization, it may be said that they dressed and conducted themselves like white men; that among their household effects were two hundred and eighty-three sewing-machines, fifty-six pianos and organs; and that they raised annually a hundred thousand dollars' worth of agricultural products. There were among their number forty-eight carpenters, mechanics, wood-carvers, and lumbermen, nine doctors, eight preachers, and five lawyers. While members of the Six Nations might be arrested, tried and punished for violations of the criminal law, our civil courts had no jurisdiction over them. Many of the families were Christians; but a large number were still pagans. Schools were established, and the people were contented, flourishing, and increasing steadily in number, another evidence of the prevailing mistake that the native American race is dying out.



From Contemporary Painting

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CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

CHAPTER III

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, HIS YOUTH AND MANHOOD, AND HIS EFFORTS TO SECURE AID IN PROSECUTING HIS GREAT VOYAGE

[*Authorities*: As introductory to the history and colonization of the New World, the authorities that treat of the geography and physical features of the continent should here be quoted. These are, mainly, MacCoun's "Historical Geography of the United States," the introductory chapters in Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Shaler's "United States of America," Doyle's "English Colonies in America," and Thwaite's compact manual on "The Colonies, 1492-1750" (in the "Epoch Series of American History"). The chief sources of information on the dawn of the New World are the initial chapters in the great histories of Bancroft and Hildreth, and, more especially, the thoughtful and attractive work of Professor Fiske on the "Discovery of America." The Columbus literature is legion; but, for the general reader, perhaps no better or more entertaining book exists than Washington Irving's "Life and Voyages of Columbus."]

The Approach of the Era of Discovery

AS the centuries passed, great changes took place in the Old World. While the vast continent on the other side of the globe lay hidden and unknown in its gloom and silence, the revolutions and overturning of governments in Europe were accompanied by an activity of thought that ushered in the true era of discovery. Gunpowder had been invented, and became a more or less influential factor in progress. The mariner's compass emboldened nations to venture far out on the stormy waste of waters; while printing by means of movable types made books abundant, and served to diffuse knowledge. The belief that the earth was flat was succeeded by the now well-grounded conviction that it was round. Assuming this fact, it followed that a voyage to the westward, if pushed far enough, would take a ship

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around the globe and bring it back to its starting-point. By sailing to the westward, too, a navigator must in time reach the eastern shore of Asia. No one seemed to believe in the possibility that between Europe and Asia lay another vast country awaiting discovery and colonization.

Increased Commercial Activity

There was a marked increase in commercial activity at the opening of the fifteenth century. Genoa (*jen'o-a*) and Venice were then active rivals for the valuable commerce of India. The chief channel of the trade of Genoa from the far east was by way of the Indus, the Oxus, and the Caspian and Black Seas. The principal route taken by the Venetians was by way of the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates, or by the Red Sea and the ports of Egypt and Syria. In the fierce strife for this commerce the Venetians beat the Genoese, who began to look in other directions for the extension of their trade. The merchants of western Europe, being shut out altogether from traffic with the East by way of the Mediterranean, began also to cast about for new and, if possible, speedier modes of reaching India.

Prince Henry of Portugal

One of the most enterprising of navigators was Prince Henry, son of John I., king of Portugal. On one of his expeditions with his father to western Africa he heard a good deal from the Moors about the coast of Guinea, and other parts of the continent wholly unknown to the European. Prince Henry was so strongly convinced that great discoveries could be made on the western coast of Africa that he withdrew from court, and gathered around him the scholars most famous for their learning. The Prince surpassed them all in knowledge, and held the belief, from which he could not be moved, that India could be reached by passing around the southern end of Africa. In the face of bigoted opposition, Prince Henry persevered, and one of his navigators afterwards proved the soundness of his theories, when, in 1497, Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, to which he gave its name, crossed the Indian Ocean, and anchored in the harbor of Calicut,* on the Malabar coast. This triumph did not come until Prince Henry had been dead for over thirty years, but he saw it with certainty from afar.

Doubling of the Cape of Good Hope

Before this memorable event, however, a still grander achievement was made by another navigator, whose name became immortal.

*Many histories fall into the error of confusing Calicut with Calcutta, citing the latter rather than the former as the port for which Vasco da Gama made after doubling the Cape. The latter was discovered, in 1486, by Bartholomew Diaz.

VASCO DA GAMA

Birth of Columbus

Christopher Columbus* was born in Genoa, Italy, about the year 1435 or 1436. He was the son of a wool-comber, in poor circumstances, and had one sister and several brothers. Little is known of his childhood, but he possessed an active mind, acquired what was looked upon as a fair education for the time, was a good penman, and showed considerable skill in drawing maps. At the age of fourteen, he went to sea. He listened eagerly to the stories told by old navigators, and was fired with the ambition to go in quest of the strange lands that he was certain were awaiting discovery. Like most of the true scholars of the time, he believed the earth to be round, and, as he grew to manhood, he set before him the task of procuring the means of engaging in the great work of his life.

He found the labor of bringing men to his way of thinking a hard one, for the months grew into years before he gained much to encourage him. Few men would have persevered in the face of so many obstacles and disappointments as awaited Columbus. Finding no one in his native city willing to lend a helping hand, he proceeded to Lisbon, arriving there about the year 1470. In that city he married Donna Felipa (*fee-leep'a*), daughter of Bartolomeo de Perestrello, who had been one of the famous navigators of Prince Henry's day. The journals of the dead navigator were placed in the hands of

Marriage of Columbus

*It abates nothing from Columbus's honors to say that that adventurous Genoese mariner was essentially the product of his age. When he came upon the scene, the idea was fast taking hold of men's minds, in the most practical way to realize it, that the earth was a sphere, and that the East could be gained as well by going in one direction as by going in another. Hitherto, the Indies had been reached only by setting out eastward. Columbus believed that the rich shores of the Orient could be got at by sailing westward; and, now that there had been improvements in the art of navigation, it was to solve this geographical problem, as well as to win, as he hoped, wealth and honor for himself, that he set out on his first perilous voyage across the Atlantic. The mistake he made, however, was in supposing that he would arrive at the Indies by the westward route in half the time that it could either then or now be possibly reached. This arose from the current error of the period, which gave the earth the due of only half its actual diameter. Hence, in arriving at the Bahamas, the fallacy of their discoverer's belief that he had reached the fabled East and gone half-way round the world. Under this conviction he seems to have rested until the close of his life; and hence also the natural mistake he made in calling the aborigines of the New World "Indians." This and other matters connected with Columbus's career and voyages is, however, more fully brought out in the text.

From the Original Drawing by Jules Turcas

COLUMBUS AND HIS SON AT LA RABIDA CONVENT

Columbus, and he studied them with the deepest interest. The knowledge thus gained, together with what was told him by his brother-in-law, another noted navigator, fanned the ambition of Columbus. From the descriptions, too, of Marco Polo, a Venetian, who made an overland journey to China towards the close of the thirteenth century, Columbus was absolutely certain that by sailing westward he would reach Cathay, that is China.

ISABELLA OF CASTILE

While nursing these dreams, he made a voyage to Iceland in 1477, in the service of Portugal. In that country he must have heard of the voyages of the sons of Eric the Red. When he came back, he applied to King John of Portugal for aid, but that monarch had a war just then on his hands and could give little attention to the dreamer. So Columbus waited until John II. became ruler. This sovereign listened patiently, and referred the matter to three learned men, who reported against it. The King, however, was not satisfied, and called another council, who also decided that the plan was a visionary one. Then King John did a base and dishonorable thing. He borrowed from Columbus his maps and charts under the pretext that he wished to study them, but at the same time sent a vessel to the Cape Verde Islands, with orders to sail as far westward as possible and learn whether there was any truth in the theories of the Italian. Fortunately, the captain and crew of the ship were great cowards, and did not go far before they were terrified by the mountainous waves of the Atlantic, and made haste to return, with the declaration that the whole thing was an idle fancy.

Columbus leaves Portugal and goes to Spain, 1484

When Columbus learned of the trick, he was so indignant that he refused all offers of the King to continue negotiations. His wife was now dead, and taking his little boy Diego (*de-ah'-go*) by the hand, Columbus left Lisbon in the latter part of 1484. To what place he first went is not known; but at the close of an autumn day he stopped at the door of the Franciscan monastery near Palos (*pah'los*), and humbly asked for some bread and water for his starving boy. This convent was dedicated to Santa Maria de Rabida (*ra-bee'da*), and while the porter was bringing the food and water, the Friar, Juan Perez de Marchena (*hwahn pa'reth da mar-sha'na*), came forward and

opened conversation with Columbus. He was struck by the words and appearance of the stranger, and quickly saw that he was no ordinary man. He invited him to become his guest, and sent for some of his learned friends in the neighborhood to meet and talk with the visitor.

Many conversations took place in the old convent, and all who listened to Columbus were impressed by his views. Among the callers were several old navigators, whose stories of what they had seen, when driven far out of their course, seemed to confirm the views of the guest. The friar was so fired by the promise of the great discovery, and the glory that could be gained for Spain, that he at once offered to introduce Columbus to court, and also to educate his son.

It was a stirring time in the history of Spain. She had been fighting bravely for years to drive out the Moors, and had well-nigh succeeded. The obnoxious intruders were confined to the one province of Granada, from which, in the course of a few years, they were to be expelled. Isabella, Queen of the large district of Castile and Leon, and Ferdinand, of the province of Aragon, had been united in marriage in 1469, and later on bent every energy to the conquest of the Moorish invaders. The two monarchs were one in their aims, though they ruled as independent sovereigns, each having a distinct council. Their profiles were cast on the coins of the realm, and together they signed public documents and performed all acts of sovereignty, while the royal seal embraced the united arms of the provinces of Castile and Aragon, which dates from 1479.

Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, 1469

FERDINAND V., OF ARAGON

It was an unfavorable period for Columbus to apply to the court for aid, for it was moving continually from place to place, and in the midst of alarms. Until the work should be completed, the sovereigns had no inclination to think of anything else. Accordingly, Columbus quietly waited at the convent until the spring of 1486, when affairs had taken on so hopeful a look that he visited the court at Cordova, and presented his letter of introduction from Father Marchena to the confessor of the Queen. The man listened to the glowing words of Columbus, but shook his head, as a sign that he did not agree with him in his opinions, and bade him good-day.

It was a sorrowful repulse to Columbus, but he had become used to that. He lingered in the neighborhood of the court, and was soon cheered by winning over Quintanilla, the controller of the finances of Castile. This officer announced his belief in the views of the Italian navigator, and did him good service by interesting the friendly help of the Grand Cardinal of Spain—a man of so great an influence that he was often termed the third king of the country. This official brought Columbus into the presence of the king and queen, who listened with profound interest to his words. They referred him to a council of astronomers and cosmographers,* most of whom were so shocked by what they deemed the impiety of the visitor's views, that for a time Columbus was in danger of being given over to the Inquisition. Bitter disappointment again was his portion. Delays and renewed discouragements followed. The sovereigns were not willing to turn him wholly away, but said that when the war was over they would again consider the matter. The months lengthened, however, into years, and the much-longed-for help did not come. Columbus made overtures to some of the nobles, but they refused, and then he wrote to the King of Portugal, who had treated him so ill. That monarch invited him to Lisbon, but, before leaving, matters looked so hopeful in Spain that Columbus decided to stay where he was.

Rebuffs and Disappointments

He had been rebuffed so often by the Spanish court that he was too proud to risk another repulse. The King of France had asked him to come to Paris, and thither he decided to go. He went to the convent for his boy, and the heart of Father Marchena was touched at the sight of the bowed man, as hopeless and poor as when he had stopped at the gate years before. The friar, too, believed in the views of Columbus, and resolved that the glory within the grasp of his country should not be lost to her. He called his learned friends around him, and had Columbus stay and once more explain his theories and the reason for his faith.

Among those who gathered at the convent, and took part in the discussion, was Martin Alonzo Pinzon, a rich navigator. He declared there was no doubt that Columbus was right, and offered to pay the expenses of another application to court, as well as to engage in a voyage of discovery with him. Columbus said he would wait a while before going to France, but would not beg any more favors from the sovereigns who had already refused him many times.

*Writers or describers of the cosmos; that is, the universe we call the world.

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Father Marchena settled this difficulty by promising to obtain an interview with the Queen herself. He had once been her confessor, and knew that such an interview could be arranged. The Queen graciously met the good man, and cheered his heart by asking him to send Columbus to her again.

Columbus arrived at Santa Fe (*fa*), whither the court had now gone, and making his way to the camp before Granada, arrived in time to see the final surrender of the Moors to the Spanish army. He was admitted to the presence of the sovereigns, and the King

THE FINAL RECALL TO COURT

Columbus' Conditions not Entertained

brusquely asked him what he expected as payment in the event of success. "To be invested with the title and privileges of an admiral and viceroy over all the countries I may discover," replied Columbus, "together with one-tenth of all the gains, either by trade or conquest." Objection being made to this, Columbus added that he would furnish one-eighth of the expense, if permitted to receive an eighth of the profits. The King shook his head, and offered less liberal terms. Columbus would not abate his demand one tittle, and the sovereigns refused to yield. So, once more, with a heavy heart, the navigator, now growing old, and with much weakened physical powers, passed

from the royal presence, and, mounting his mule, resolved that he would go to France without further loss of time.

But there were powerful friends at court who had become zealous believers in his theories. One of these, Luis de St. Angel, receiver of the ecclesiastical revenues of Aragon, made an eloquent appeal to the sovereigns to accept the terms of Columbus. The King remained obdurate, but Isabella was won over. With the natural impulse of her sex, she said that although it was true, as stated by the King, that the country had been drained by the costly war, she would pledge if necessary, her own crown of Castile and her jewels to raise the money.

The Sympathy of Isabella elicited

By this time, Columbus was several miles away on his plodding mule. At the bridge of Pinos, the dusty messenger overtook him, bearing the all-important message that he was to return at once to the united sovereigns. Columbus hesitated, but the assurance that the Queen was in earnest caused him to turn and ride back, hope renewed within his breast, yet wondering whether another disappointment was not awaiting him. But Isabella received him graciously, assured him that his terms were agreed to, and urged that he should lose no time in sailing upon the expedition, which she was certain would result in so much grandeur and glory to Spain. The soul of Columbus expanded with exultant joy, and, in the excess of his emotion, he promised to give all the profits of the enterprise to the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem from the unbelievers. The Queen clasped her hands in ecstasy, and asked the blessing of Heaven upon Columbus and his companions in the enterprise.

The Contract made with the Sovereigns, April 17, 1492

Ferdinand, though colder-hearted and more calculating, could not withhold his consent to the arrangement, and the contract was signed by the sovereigns at Santa Fe, April 17, 1492. Some days later, the commission of Columbus as admiral and viceroy was signed in the city of Granada. By the terms of the agreement, these honors were made hereditary in his family, and the right of prefixing the title of Don was given to his heirs. In the following month, Diego, the son of Columbus, was made page to Prince John, son of the ruling monarch and his consort. With a feeling as if the burden of a score of years had been lifted from his shoulders, Columbus bade his sovereigns adieu, and rode back to La Rabida, where he was welcomed by the now exulting Father Marchena and his equally happy friends.

Now, as the great discoverer nears the era of his life that was to make his name immortal, it is interesting to learn something of

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his personal appearance. The most trustworthy account is that of Mr. Clements R. Markham, C. B., the English geographer. This gentleman has brought to light the only portrait of Columbus which is known to be authentic. He found it in a private house at Como, where it had been treasured ever since it was placed there by Paulus Jovius, a contemporary of the great navigator. Regarding the looks of Columbus, Mr. Markham says:

Personal Appearance of Columbus

"We gather some idea of the Admiral's personal appearance from the descriptions of Las Casas* and Oviedo.† He was a man of middle height, with courteous manners and noble bearing. His face was oval, with a pleasing expression, the nose aquiline, the eyes blue, and the complexion fair and inclined to ruddiness. The hair was red, though it became gray soon after he was thirty. Only one authentic portrait of Columbus is known to have been painted. The Italian historian, Paulus Jovius, who was his contemporary, collected a gallery of portraits of worthies of his time at his villa on the Lake of Como. Among them was a portrait of the Admiral. There is an early engraving from it, and very indifferent copies in the Uffizi Gallery at Florence and at Madrid. But until quite recently I do not think that the original was known to exist.

"It, however, never left the family, and when the last Giovio died it was inherited by her grandson, the Nobile de Greche, who is the present possessor. I was so fortunate as to see it when I was at Como, and also to obtain a photograph of it. Here we have the head of a venerable man, with thin gray hair, the forehead high, the eyes pensive and rather melancholy. It was thus that he doubtless appeared during the period that he was in Spain after his return in chains or during the last years of his life."

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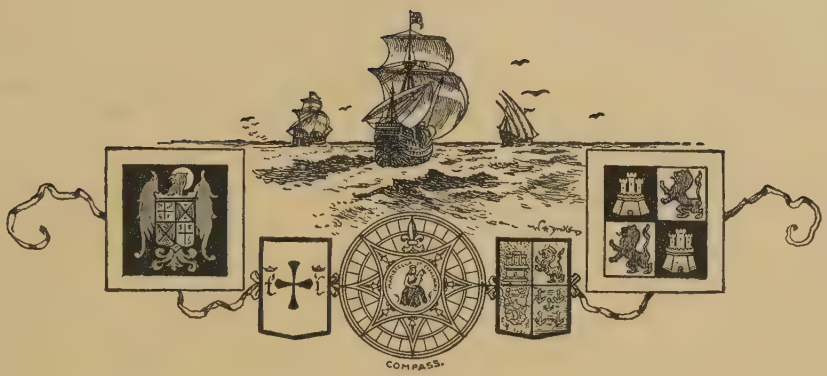
*Bartolome de Las Casas (*b.* 1474, *d.* 1566), a Spanish ecclesiastic and bishop of Chiapa, Mexico. Tradition speaks of him as a companion of Columbus, on his first voyage to the New World, and as having been with Velasquez in Cuba, where he witnessed the Spanish conquest of that island, in 1511. He is known to have travelled extensively in the West Indies, Mexico, and Central America, and to have warmly espoused the cause of the Indians against the cruelties of the Spanish colonists. He repeatedly appealed to the Spanish Court on their behalf, and also besought aid for them from Charles V. of Germany. His works, which chiefly relate to Spanish outrages on the Indians, are of considerable historic importance. See Sir Arthur Helps's "Life of Las Casas, the Apostle of the Indians," and his "Spanish Conquests in America."

†Oviedo y Valdes (*b.* 1478, *d.* 1557). See the Appendix to Washington Irving's "Life and Voyages of Columbus" for notices of both Las Casas and Oviedo.



CHAPTER IV

THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

[*Authorities*: Chiefly those quoted at the head of the preceding chapter, with Higginson's "Explorers of America," and Sir Arthur Helps's "Life of Columbus." To the general histories may also be added Bryant and Gay's "History of the United States," and Lossing's "Popular Cyclopaedia of United States History."]

BACKED by the authority of the sovereigns, Columbus went to Palos and made known the royal order that three caravels, or small three-masted vessels, should be made ready, and with their crews be placed at his disposal. The people of the place were also ordered to furnish all needed supplies at just prices. When it became known for what purpose this command had been given, the sailors and their friends were thrown into consternation. Every one believed in the awful terrors of the western Atlantic, and was convinced that whoever ventured on the mad voyage would never return. To escape the dreadful fate, scores of sailors fled from the city, and it looked for a time as if Columbus was to meet his crowning disappointment, when all the means that he asked for had been placed at his disposal.

Columbus at Palos, 1492

In this crisis, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and his brother, Vincent Yanez, known not only for their wealth, but for their skill as navigators, came forward and offered to furnish one of the vessels, and to go with Columbus, each as a master of a ship. Moreover, Martin kept his pledge of advancing one-eighth of the entire cost of the expedition. The effect of this timely offer brought success. Sailors volunteered, and in a short time the needed number were secured and the three caravels were made ready for sea.

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The flagship of Columbus was the *Santa Maria,* which was the only one of the three vessels that was decked. The others were pierced for oars, to be used in calm weather, each with a "foc'sle for'ard" and a cabin in the high stern, for the use of the ship's company. The *Pinta* was commanded by Martin Alonzo Pinzon, while his brother, Francisco Martin, acted as pilot. Vincent Yanez Pinzon commanded the *Nina.* A royal notary, doctor, and surgeon accompanied the expedition, which with the adventurers, servants, and ninety sailors, made the whole number of souls on board the three vessels one hundred and twenty persons. The expedition sailed from Palos, August 3, 1492, at eight o'clock in the morning.

Sailing of the Expedition, Aug. 3, 1492

Six days later, the ships reached the Canary Islands, where fresh water and provisions were taken aboard, and the broken rudder of the *Pinta* was repaired. Learning that three Portuguese vessels were cruising outside to capture him, Columbus made haste to sail out on the unknown ocean, knowing that his enemies would not dare to follow him. Many of the readers of this history will no doubt have seen the caravels presented to our Government by the King of Spain, just before the Columbian Exposition, and which were exact models of those used by Columbus. Few persons would care to attempt an ocean voyage in even the largest of them, and we cannot help admiring the courage of Columbus and his men in sailing boldly out on the Atlantic, of which all had heard the most appalling stories.

The Voyage

Had those caravels encountered such storms as often sweep the ocean, they must have gone to the bottom, but providentially they were saved from that fate, and few of the expected terrors showed themselves. Nevertheless, the sailors were never free from fear from the hour they left the Canary Islands. They grew sullen and discontented, and longed for something to happen which would cause Columbus to return to Spain, while he had the chance to do so. Persons in that apprehensive state of mind are certain to see things which add to their fears. It was an alarming sight when the sky was lit up by the glare from the volcano on Teneriffe (*ten'-er-if*) and they were glad to leave it behind them.

Passing the Volcanic Island of Teneriffe (Spanish)

One day Columbus received a shock. He was continually looking at the compass, whose needle by and by began to swerve from its position. Instead of pointing toward the north star, he saw it for the first time in his life point to one side of the star, and this variation increased as the ship progressed westward. Columbus could

not understand the cause of this variation, which even now is not clearly comprehended. He knew it would add to the terrors of the sailors, so he prepared an explanation. They soon noticed the startling fact and made haste to appeal to him. His reply was that the compass did not point directly toward the north star, but at a fixed point near it, and the seeming variation was caused by the revolution

THE PEAK OF TENERIFFE

of the star itself. The men had faith in the learning of Columbus, and believed what he told them; he even believed it himself.

Signs of Mutiny among the Crew

The sailors, however, grew more sullen, and he saw that trouble was coming. He told them about the wonderful lands that he was certain they would discover, and the glory and wealth that would come to them. He may have roused their ambition and greed, but he could not drive away their increasing fears. They would have been only too glad to turn their backs upon all these rich prospects for the sake of joining their families and friends at home.

It was a strange sight which greeted them one day. The ocean seemed to have changed into a vast, heaving island. This was

PERIOD I — DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION 1000 TO 1590 —

caused by immense masses of seaweed, so dense that they retarded the progress of the vessels. Awed and wondering, they kept their sails spread, however, and finally pushed their way through what is known as the Sargasso Sea,* with which nearly all navigators are familiar. Then a heron, and afterwards a tropical bird, circled about the ships as if to gain a closer view of them, and sped away to the westward. No stronger proof could have been given of the approach to land, and for a time the sailors were soothed; but the days passed without the yearned-for shore appearing, and they grew mutinous again. It required promises of reward, with pleadings and threats, to prevent the men, in a spirit of mutiny, from taking charge of the caravels and turning about.

Before the expedition left Spain, the sovereigns promised a pension to the first man who saw land. Just as night was closing in, Martin Pinzon, standing on the *Pinta* and pointing westward, roused all by shouting:

A False Alarm

"Land! land! I claim my reward!"

All eyes were turned in the direction indicated by him, and they saw what seemed to be a low, flat island in the horizon. Columbus, overcome with gratitude, sank on his knees and devoutedly returned thanks to God for His great providence. Few eyes that night were closed in slumber, and as the little ships continued on their course, the crews were sure that the morning would show them the coveted land but a few miles away.

But when the sun rose behind them, the longing eyes failed to discern the first glimpse of the new country. That which deceived them was a low-lying cloud that was dissipated by the sun's rays. On every side was nothing but the heaving ocean and the blue sky. The sailors became more mutinous than ever before as the days passed, with the distance between them and their homes increasing, and the certainty, as they viewed it, of never seeing their loved ones again. They told Columbus that he must turn back or they would do so themselves. He replied that the voyage was undertaken by the authority of their sovereigns, and he never would return until its objects had been gained. Growing more rebellious, they warned him that they would cast him into the sea, and were, in truth, preparing to

*Immense areas met with in the North Atlantic, extending from the Azores to the Antilles, composed of floating seaweed and vegetating plant life. The Gulf Stream keeps the seaweed in constant motion.

carry out the dreadful threat when their hands were stayed by new and convincing evidence of their approach to land.

Late in the afternoon of October 11, a branch of thorn with berries on it drifted past one of the vessels, followed by an oar, carved by a human hand. These proofs were so striking that the men ceased their murmurs. Columbus assured them that within a few hours they would certainly see a new country. He told them to keep a sharp watch, and he would give to the first man who made the discovery a fine doublet (waistcoat) of velvet, in addition to the pension promised by the sovereigns.

All doubt having vanished from the minds of the mutineers, they became meek and obedient, and eagerly watched throughout the night, anxious to obtain the double reward that was now assured to the one with the keenest eye. Columbus resorted to the upper deck of the *Santa Maria*, and spent hours in peering through the gloom to the westward, where he knew the unknown country lay, and which he was confident would greet them with the rising sun.

It was about ten o'clock when he thought that he saw a light gleaming through the darkness. He would have set it down as a star in the horizon had it not been moving rapidly, as if carried by the hand of a running person. Doubtful whether he saw aright, he called to Pedro Gutierrez, a gentleman of the king's bedchamber, and asked him whether he could see the light. He answered that he did see it. Columbus then called a third person, Sanchez, and repeated the question. The light had vanished, but it reappeared in a few minutes and was observed several times by all three before it finally disappeared. The gun was not fired, however, because so many disappointments had occurred. Suddenly, before sunrise, one of the little cannon on the *Pinta* flashed out in the gloom, and its sharp report rang over the waters. Roderigo de Triana had caught the dim outlines of land, about six miles distant. Justice would seem to require that the reward should have been given to him, but, to his chagrin, Columbus set up his own claim and obtained it.

First Sight of the New World Oct. 12, 1492

As the light of morning overspread the ocean, every one on the three caravels gazed upon the New World. One of the Bahamas lay before them, its wooded shores green with vegetation and gleaming with wild flowers. The soft winds wafted the perfume to the delighted sailors, the birds carolled their songs, and the nude natives were seen peeping out in awe and wonder from behind the trees at

their strange visitors. It is now believed that the land first seen by Columbus was what is to-day known as Watling Island.

What a proud moment for the great navigator when he donned his gorgeous uniform, and, bearing the royal standard, stepped into one of the boats and was rowed ashore! He had solved the problem of the ages and earned a name that shall never die. No disputations or after-claims can ever rob him of the glory or dim the lustre of his name in the annals of human achievement.

The small boat in which Columbus put off for shore was followed by that of the *Pinta*, each of which bore the white silk banner of the expedition, shaped like a pennon and emblazoned with a green cross, with the letter F on one side and Y on the other, being the initials of Ferdinand and Ysabella, with a golden crown above.

The Landing

Columbus was the first to step ashore, quickly followed by the officers and crews. All kneeled down and kissed the green earth, and with overflowing hearts chanted the *Te Deum Laudamus.** Then, rising erect, Columbus drew his sword, unfurled the royal standard, and took possession of the land in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella. He gave the name of San Salvador to the island, and not doubting that it formed a part of the coast of India, he designated the inhabitants *Indians*.

The Indians

These people were the most interesting objects upon which the eyes of the visitors rested. Their copper skins were painted with a variety of colors and devices; they had luxuriant black hair, and the men were without beards. They showed no signs of hostility, and gradually losing the fear which first caused them to flee, drew near and were kindly treated by the white men, whom they viewed with a wonder that could not be expressed. The natives called the island Guanahani (*gwah-na-hah'ni*), but the name San Salvador still clings to it, though the English prefer that of Cat Island.

The natives had no bows or arrows, their only weapons being spears, pointed with bone or flint. They showed but a few golden ornaments, and when presented with beads, hawks' bills, and gaudy trinkets, were so delighted that the Spaniards broke into laughter at their antics. They were as simple and artless as young children.

*The first words—"We praise thee, O Lord"—of an ancient Christian hymn ascribed to St. Ambrose. It forms part of the daily matins of the Roman Catholic breviary, and is also chanted or read in the morning service of the Anglican Church and of the Protestant Episcopal Church of America.

The change from the restraint of the ships was so refreshing, after the six weeks of tossing upon the ocean, that the day was spent in wandering about the island, reclining in the cool shade of the trees, and amusing themselves with the Indians.

On the second morning, the visitors rowed to the northeast to examine the island further. The natives followed them along the shore, and when they found that the white men would not land, many of them sprang into the water and swam out to the boats.

WRECK OF THE "SANTA MARIA"

Other Discoveries.

Then Columbus hoisted anchor and continued his explorations, visiting many of the islands which abound in that neighborhood. On the 28th of October, he coasted along the northern shore of Cuba, and saw the natives smoke tobacco, in the form of rude cigars. The Spaniards did not adopt the habit, which seemed to them as uncleanly as it really is, even though the tobacco of Cuba is considered perhaps the finest in the world.

The explorers treated the natives so well that they manifested a strong liking for the white men. So when Columbus invited ten of

them to go back with him and view the wonderful country which was his home, they consented to do so. The homeward voyage was begun in November, but contrary winds drove the *Santa Maria* back to Cuba. Captain Pinzon, of the *Pinta*, refused to follow, and was not seen again for some days. The weather having become more favorable, Columbus sailed once more, and soon came in sight of the lovely island of San Domingo, that is Hayti (or Haiti, as our government has decided that it ought to be spelled). They found its natural beauties so charming that the navigators stayed several days, and because of its resemblance to Spain, Columbus gave it the name of Hispaniola (the Spanish form of ancient Roman "Hispania," or Spain.)

Wrecking of the "Santa Maria"

On Christmas eve, however, while sailing along the coast in search of anchorage, the man at the helm steered so badly that the *Santa Maria* was driven on the beach and wrecked. The crew took refuge on the *Nina*, and the natives eagerly helped in transferring her equipment to the smaller boat. Many of the Spaniards asked permission to remain on the island, and Columbus consented, for the *Nina* was uncomfortably crowded, and he was pleased at the prospect of planting a colony in the New World. The *Santa Maria* was knocked apart, and from the timbers was constructed a fort, though it is hard to imagine what need there could be for a fort among so gentle and tractable a folk. Columbus begged them to live honest Christian lives, and bidding them good-by, sailed for home. This was on January 16, 1493.

The men left behind, like most of the Spaniards who attempted settlements in this country, were cruel and lost to every sense of honor. The *Nina* had hardly disappeared in the horizon, when the forty colonists at La Navidad,* as the fort was called, began their wickedness. They robbed the natives of their golden ornaments, beat them cruelly, and made slaves of them. No beasts of the field were ever treated with greater brutality. The white men roamed through the island, eagerly hunting for gold and robbing every native who had anything in his possession worth taking. They kept up their cruelty until one of the chiefs rallied his warriors in sufficient numbers to overwhelm the white men. Those that had shown

Destruction of La Navidad

no mercy now received none. Every one of the Spaniards was slain, and La Navidad was burned to ashes. Thus deservedly perished the first attempt at Spanish settlement in the New World.

*"The Nativity."

Meanwhile Columbus was sailing homeward, accompanied by the *Pinta*, which had by this time rejoined him. Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who was jealous of Columbus, refused to obey his orders except when it pleased him to do so, and kidnapped several natives; therefore the Admiral decided to make his way home as fast as he could, and rid himself of so undesirable a companion.

The homeward voyage was marked by alternate calms and fierce tempests, which separated the caravels, whose crews did not see each other again until after crossing the ocean. One of these storms was so violent and long continued that Columbus believed both vessels must be lost. That a knowledge of the discoveries he had made

RETURN OF COLUMBUS

might be preserved, he placed a written narrative inside a sealed cask and flung it overboard. What an interesting find this cask and its contents would be! Several claims were made, many years afterwards, that it had been washed ashore and picked up, but investigation showed all such claims to be false, so that, had the caravels foundered, America would have had to be discovered anew.

Arrival of the "Nina" at Portugal

But the tempest abated, and at daylight, March 4, the *Nina* appeared at the mouth of the Tagus, in Portugal, and some hours later dropped anchor. Columbus immediately sent a courier to the sovereigns of Spain at Seville, making known his arrival and his great discovery. Another letter was forwarded to King John of Portugal, who was at Valparaiso (*val-pa-ri'so*). The king sent an urgent invitation to the Admiral to visit him, and extended his warm congrat-

ulations upon his success. It is hard to believe in the sincerity of these congratulations, for the monarch must have recalled his treatment of Columbus and seen the disastrous consequences of his failure to treat him honestly. The glory that might have been Portugal's was now transferred to Spain, and the mistake could never be corrected. Columbus visited the King and was treated with much consideration and paid the highest honors.

Arrival of Columbus at Palos, March 15, 1493

On Friday, March 15, at noon, the *Nina* dropped anchor in the harbor of Palos. Thus, by a curious coincidence, Columbus left Spain, discovered a New World, and arrived home on a Friday, the day which sailors regard with more distrust than any other of the week, and it may be added that, nearly two and a half centuries later, the immortal Washington was born on a Friday.

Never was the old town of Palos, and indeed all Spain, so stirred as it was by the return of Columbus and his men. Hardly any one believed that they would ever be seen again after their departure the previous summer; but here they were, brown, rugged, and happy, filled with a pride in their own deeds and what their illustrious commander had accomplished. The people were in a frenzy of joy, and, as soon as the Admiral could free himself from the delighted throngs, he set out for Seville, where he found a letter from his sovereigns asking him to come at once to the court at Barcelona (*bar-se-lo'-nah*).

Arrival of Martin Pinzon

Meanwhile, Martin Pinzon entered the harbor of Palos, on the evening after the arrival of the *Nina*. He had previously stopped at Bayonne (*ba-yon'*), in France, and under the belief that Columbus had been lost at sea, he forwarded a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella, with a full account of the discoveries made, for which he hoped to reap the glory. It was a bitter disappointment when he found that Columbus had arrived safely in port a few hours before, and was already on his way to meet the sovereigns. Pinzon stayed behind until he received a reply from the King and Queen, which was filled with reproaches, and which curtly forbade him to appear at court. At this, he was overcome with mortification and chagrin, and died a few days later.

The letter placed in the Admiral's hands at Seville was directed to "Don Christopher Columbus, our Admiral of the ocean sea, Viceroy and Governor of the islands discovered in the Indies." Of the ten Indians whom he brought from Cuba, one died at sea, and three were left ill at Palos, so that Columbus took six with him to the Spanish

TRIUMPH OF COLUMBUS

court. It was impossible to describe the honors shown to the great discoverer when at last he appeared before the King and Queen. The military display; the tributes of the loftiest dignitaries of that proud, aristocratic kingdom; the shouting thousands on the housetops, at the windows and in the streets; the strains of martial music; the priests, nobles and distinguished men, Columbus on horseback among the hidalgos; the dusky natives in their gaudy dresses, bearing lofty plumes and tropical birds of gorgeous plumage; the crews of the vessels, and an almost numberless lot of curiosities brought from that wonderful New World—all these and much more made up a scene of magnificence, beauty, and impressiveness, to which both pen and pencil fail to do justice.

The Reception of Columbus by Ferdinand and Isabella

When Columbus presented himself before the monarchs, he sank upon his knees, but the happy Queen begged him to rise—a most unusual honor. He kissed the hands of the sovereigns, and seating himself among the nobles, told his marvelous story, to which all listened with breathless interest. Not a heart was unmoved in that court. The eyes of Ferdinand and Isabella overflowed with tears, and kneeling down, as did every one present, the monarchs devoutly thanked God for His great blessings. When they arose, the royal choir chanted the *Te Deum*, and all joined in the song of praise. Then the company was dismissed with the apostolic benediction.

Columbus and the Egg

It was at a dinner given shortly after, where Columbus occupied the seat of honor, that the incident of the egg occurred. The great attentions received by the Admiral awoke the jealousy of the courtiers. One of them, with a sneer, asked Columbus whether he did not think that if he had failed to discover the Indies (such being the belief of every one), it would have been done by others in Spain. By way of reply, Columbus took an egg from a dish before him, and handing it to the courtier asked him to make it stand on one end. The courtier tried it in vain, and then passed it to his friends. They made repeated attempts, but without success, and the egg came back to the hand of the Admiral. Tapping one end on the table, so as to fracture the shell and make a small flat surface, he balanced the egg for the guests.

"Any one could do that," remarked the courtier.

"So any one can discover the Indies, after I have shown the way," was the witty comment of the Admiral.

Ferdinand and Isabella saw the necessity of following up the work

Period I — Discovery and Exploration 1000 to 1590 —

already done by Columbus. As news of his discovery spread throughout Europe it awakened a profound interest, and other nations wished to send out expeditions, for whichever was first in finding new lands would be sure to own them. Portugal and Spain made an agreement, in 1493, by which Portugal was not to interfere with Spain in America, while Spain was not to disturb Portugal in Africa or the East Indies. The only part, therefore, taken by Portugal was in 1501, when one of her navigators explored the Atlantic coast from Maine to Newfoundland. The maritime nations in western Europe

COLUMBUS AND THE EGG

Maritime Nations of the Period

at this time were Spain, England, France, and Portugal. Holland was subject to Spain, and did not become independent until the opening of the seventeenth century, so that no step was taken by her until the first English settlement had been planted in Virginia. Italy and Germany were broken up into numerous weak states, Norway had lost its prestige, and Sweden was not strong enough to enter into the tremendous contest for possessions in the New World.

Columbus was as eager as were his sovereigns to complete his

grand work, and he had no trouble in fitting out an immense expedition, consisting of three large ships and fourteen caravels carrying fifteen hundred men, among whom were twelve missionaries, filled with a holy zeal for the conversion of the heathen, and an abundance of animals and material for colonization. This fleet sailed from Cadiz, September 25, 1493.

Columbus sails on his Second Voyage, Sept. 25, 1493

This expedition, which promised so much, met nothing but failure and disaster. It seemed as if after Columbus had made his great discovery his work was done, and it would have been well for his fame had he rested on the laurels already won, and never again crossed the ocean. The men who now went with him were mostly adventurers and rogues, whose one desire was to gather the gold which they believed existed in untold quantities in America. Columbus was a poor governor, and unable to control the quarrelsome, mutinous horde under his charge, for whose misdoings he was held responsible. He discovered a number of islands, and received his first shock when he called at La Navidad and found not one of the men left there alive. Forty miles to the east of Cape Haytien a fort was erected and a settlement planted, to which he gave the name of Isabella. He explored the southern coast of Cuba and discovered Jamaica, which he named Santiago (*sahn-ti-ah'go*), and threaded his way through a mass of islands which he called the Garden of the Queen. In the month of June, 1495, he sent five ship-loads of natives to Seville to be sold as slaves. It was a brutal act, without excuse, and the King and Queen, as soon as they learned what had been done, ordered the shocking traffic to be stopped. Finally Columbus returned to Spain, where he arrived June 11, 1496. He was full of misgiving, for he knew his enemies had been busy, but to his great relief his sovereigns received him kindly. His request to be sent on a third expedition was granted. and he sailed again with six ships, May 30, 1498.

Return of Columbus to Spain, June 11, 1496

This voyage ranks next to the first in importance, for on the 1st of August he saw for the first time the mainland of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River. He had not the faintest suspicion that the land which he discovered was anything but a series of islands, to which he gave various names. Anxious for the welfare of the colony of Isabella, he sailed thither and found everything topsy-turvy. His attempts to bring order out of discord made matters worse. His enemies became so bitter against him that they

From the Original Painting by Warren Sheppard

DISCOVERY OF SOUTH AMERICA

resolved not to stop their persecutions until his ruin was effected. So many malicious reports of his conduct were sent to Spain, that the sovereigns sent Francisco de Bobadilla with full authority to set things right. He deposed Columbus from his power, and sent him to Spain in irons. The captain of the ship was so moved with pity that he offered to strike the irons from his illustrious prisoner. But Columbus would not permit it. He said they had been placed upon him by order of their majesties, and they alone had power to remove them. He added that he would always keep them as relics and memorials of the reward for his services.

Columbus in Irons

Isabella lost no time in having the irons taken off. She was indignant at the infamous treatment, and she and her husband expressed their anger in unmistakable terms. The welcome of Columbus at Granada, in December, 1499, was warm and cordial. Although he was much broken in spirit and body, he entreated to be sent upon a fourth expedition, which was granted, and he sailed with four caravels and one hundred and fifty men from Cadiz, May 9, 1502. On this voyage he discovered the island of Martinique (*mar-te-neek'*), but disaster, sorrow, and suffering met him now at every turn, and when he returned to Seville, November 7, 1504, he was sick, and utterly broken in health. A few weeks later, the good Queen Isabella, his best and truest friend, died, and he felt that no hope remained to him, for the King was cold and selfish. He refused to give Columbus the honors and rewards he and the Queen had solemnly bound themselves to give, and allowed him to die in utter poverty. He passed away at Valladolid (*val'la-do-lid'* or *leed'*) May 20, 1506, his last words being: "O Lord, into Thy hands I commit my spirit."

His Death, May 20, 1506

The remains of the great man were placed in the convent of San Francisco, where they lay without stone or inscription for seven years, when the King from very shame caused the bones to be removed to Seville, and placed beneath a marble tomb bearing the inscription:

A Castilla y a Leon
Nuevo Mundo Dio Colon

These words mean: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New World,"—a solemn truth, but with what neglect and injustice was the great discoverer repaid!

The remains of his son, Diego, were afterwards laid beside those of his father, where they reposed until 1536, when both bodies were exhumed and removed to San Domingo and buried in a cathedral. They were not disturbed again until 1795–96, when, because of the cession of the island to the French, they were transferred to the cathedral of Havana.*

Some years ago, a magnificent monument was erected to the memory of Columbus in his native city of Genoa, where the house in which he was born has been fully identified. The tomb is forty feet in height, and is composed of the finest Carrara marble. The honors paid to his memory in 1893, by our own country, upon the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, were greater than Columbus ever received from any other nation, and formed a fitting crown to the grandeur and majesty of his achievements.

Tribute paid by Washington Irving

The character of Columbus has been eloquently summed up by Washington Irving: "In him," he says, "were singularly combined the practical and the poetical. His mind had grasped all kinds of knowledge, whether procured by study or observation, which bore upon his theories; impatient of the scanty aliment of the day, 'his impetuous ardor,' as has been well observed, 'threw him into the study of the fathers of the church, the Arabian Jews, and the ancient geographers;' while his daring, but irregular genius, bursting from the limits of imperfect science, bore him to conclusions far beyond the intellectual vision of his contemporaries. If some of his conclusions were erroneous, they were at least ingenious and splendid. And their errors resulted from the clouds which still hung over his peculiar path of enterprise. His own discoveries enlightened the ignorance of the age, guided conjecture to certainty, and dispelled that very darkness with which he had been obliged to struggle. It has been said that mercenary views mingled with the ambition of Columbus, and that his stipulations with the Spanish Court were selfish and avaricious. The charge is inconsiderate and unjust. He aimed at dignity and wealth in the same lofty spirit in which he sought renown; they were to be part and parcel of the achievement,

*Late investigations give good ground for the belief that only the remains of the son were taken from Hispaniola, and that, therefore, the ashes of Columbus rest where they were placed in 1536.

and palpable evidence of its success; they were to arise from the territories he should discover, and be commensurate in importance. No condition could be more just."*

*At the sixty-fourth annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held at Oxford in the summer of 1894, a remarkable statement was made by Mr. H. Yule Oldham, to the effect that the continent of America was discovered by a Portuguese navigator forty-five years before Columbus sighted the Bahamas.

Claim to the Discovery of South America by Portuguese, 1447.

This statement of Mr. Oldham's has been received by geographers with some expression of incredulity. The New York *Sun* commented upon it with its wonted fairness and intelligence. The following remarks are based chiefly upon the *Sun's* observations.

Now, it is well understood that there are three routes by which, in the days of sailing ships, the Atlantic might most easily be crossed from east to west. First, there is the northern route, followed by the Norsemen, and by John Cabot, in 1497, when he discovered Newfoundland and coasted the North American mainland for a considerable distance. The central route had its natural starting-point at the Canary Islands, whence vessels, their prows turned westward, received the steady and powerful propulsion of the northeast trade winds. This was the course taken by Columbus, and by most of the other mariners in the Spanish service. The third or southern route, however, was the shortest and easiest. To render it available, it was only necessary, in the southward progress of discovery, to reach Cape Verde, from which point the united action of trade winds and ocean currents would strongly impel a vessel toward Cape St. Roque, at the northeast corner of Brazil. This actually happened in 1500, when the Portuguese navigator, Cabral, while on his way to the Cape of Good Hope, was, when in the latitude of Cape Verde, driven westward by a tempest, and not only discovered the mouth of the Amazon, but skirted along a part of the Brazilian coast.

What Mr. Oldham attempts to prove is that this inevitable outcome of Portuguese navigation along the west coast of Africa was realized many years before Cabral's discovery of Brazil. Cape Verde, he reminds us, was first made known by a Portuguese expedition sent out by Prince Henry, the navigator, in 1445, and during the years immediately following many vessels were dispatched from Portugal on further explorations in the same direction. One of these vessels, Mr. Oldham claims, reached the coast of Brazil as early as 1447. In Antonio Galvano's work on "The Discoveries of the World," published in the middle of the sixteenth century, a Portuguese ship is stated to have been driven westward in 1447 by a great tempest, and borne to an island from which gold was brought home.

This statement, if unsubstantiated, could not be accepted; but it has been corroborated by a manuscript map, preserved at Milan, dated 1448, and drawn by the wellknown cartographer, Andrea Bianco, of Venice. In addition to the Portuguese discoveries on the African mainland, this map shows, southwest of Cape Verde, a long coast line with the designation "Authentic Island," and an inscription to the effect that it stretched fifteen hundred miles westward. This map was made in London, and Mr. Oldham assumes that it contained information obtained from Portugal about the voyage recorded by Galvano. Opposed to this view, it has been urged that the reported existence of gold in the direction named would have impelled Prince Henry to renewed adventures in the west; but the unquestioned incident of Cabral proves that such an occurrence was certain to take place, sooner or later; and it cannot be said, therefore, that the story told by Galvano is improbable.

From the Original Drawing by J. Steeple Davis

SEARCH FOR THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH

CHAPTER V

THE SPANISH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA

[*Authorities*: For the general reader, and by way of introduction to Spanish exploration in the New World, Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella" should be consulted, with Sir Arthur Helps's "Spanish Conquest in America," and Robert MacKenzie's "America" (Chapter on Spanish America). The authorities on early Mexican and Peruvian civilization, of a popular character, are still Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico" and "Conquest of Peru," with Hale's "Story of Mexico" (in "Story of the Nations Series"). For special narratives of individual explorers, see the Lives of Cortez, Pizarro, Balboa, Ponce de Leon, De Soto, and Narvaez, Vogel's "Century of Discovery," Higginson's "Explorers of the New World," also Murray's "Catholic Pioneers of America."]

THE great discovery of Columbus caused a profound excitement throughout the then civilized world. The leading maritime nations of Europe at that time were Portugal, Spain, England, and France. It will be remembered that when Columbus became discouraged over his repeated failures to enlist the interest of the Spanish and Portuguese rulers, he sent his brother Bartholomew to seek the aid of Henry the Seventh, of England. Bartholomew, for several reasons, was slow in making his application to the British monarch, who responded at once, however, on being approached on the subject. He sent Bartholomew to Spain to bring his brother to England, but on the way thither Barthomew learned of the wonderful discovery made by Christopher, and of his return to the country of Ferdinand and Isabella.

Early Rival Maritime Nations

King Henry was deeply disappointed, for the grandest of all opportunities had slipped irrevocably from his grasp, but he quickly saw that if he could not be the first at the feast, he might share with

others in the distribution of the good things to follow. When John Cabot, a famous Italian navigator living at Bristol in 1496, asked permission for himself and his sons to explore the New World, it was readily granted, and Cabot, accompanied by his son, Sebastian, sailed from England in the following year, and saw the continent of America, in June, 1497. It was this fact which gave England a well-founded claim to the American continent.

The Cabots, 1497 and 1498

Sebastian Cabot was a greater navigator than his father. King Henry fitted out two small vessels for him in 1498, and in May he sailed for the northern coast of America. The particulars of this remarkable voyage are not known, but there is little doubt that the younger Cabot coasted along New England, New York, and as far south as Cape Hatteras. He, like those who preceded him and many that followed, was bitten with the chimerical notion of discovering a short route to India, which of course, he failed to find. He discovered Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador, and did not fail to note the immense number of codfish which then, as now, frequented those northern waters. Finding his provisions running short when off the Carolinas, Cabot returned to England. His failure to discover the elusive northwestern passage, or to bring back any gold, was a disappointment to the British monarch, and, for a long time, England took no further interest in the New World.

SEBASTIAN CABOT

Amerigo Vespucci

It seems strange that, while every one concedes that Christopher Columbus was the real discoverer of America, it was named in honor of another person who had only a qualified claim to such distinction. Amerigo Vespucci (*ah-ma-ree'go ves-poot'chee*) was a Florentine, born about the year 1451. His business in Seville was the furnishing of supplies for ships, and fitting them out for exploring and mercantile expeditions. The achievements of Columbus stirred the ambition of Vespucci to become a great discoverer, and by some it is thought that he was not the one to hesitate at the means by which to gain such a reputation. He cultivated the friendship of Columbus, who fully trusted him, and in May, 1499, Vespucci accompanied the expedition of De Ojeda (*O-ha'-dah*), which consisted of four ships. They saw the coast of South America, and visited Trinidad, which Columbus

had named the preceding year. They kidnapped a number of natives in the Antilles, took them to Spain, and sold them into slavery.

In the fifteenth century there existed at Saint-Die a college of learned canons who formed the Gymnase Vosgien, which became famous and attracted many scholars to the town. About 1507, or some thirty-five years after the death of Gutenburg, this society determined to set up a printing machine, the first or possibly the second installed in the province of Lorraine. Two learned strangers who had recently arrived in the country encouraged the canons in their undertaking, furnishing some of the money needed and supervising the work. These strangers were Martin Waldseemuller, of Fribourgen-Brisgau, a noted geographer, and Mathias Ringmann, born at Val-d'Orbey, a schoolmaster from Strasbourg, aged 25.

Printing Press at Saint-Die

The printing shop was established in a house on the Place Pierre-Hardie, now called the Place Jules-Ferry. The Duke of Lorraine, Rene II., looked with favor on the undertaking, and having received from Italy a description in French entitled "Quatre Navigations d' Americ Vespuce," he passed it over to Canon Jean Basin de Sandancourt, whose ancient house may still be seen in Saint-Die, for translation into Latin.

At this time Waldseemuller and Ringmann were at work on a reproduction of Ptolemy's treatise on geography, to which they were adding a preface entitled "Cosmographiae Introductio." They determined to incorporate the story of Amerigo Vespucci's voyages into this work, and Ringmann, who was acting as editor, wrote an introduction beginning:

AMERIGO VESPUCCI

"There is a fourth quarter of the world which Amerigo Vespucci has discovered and which for this reason we can call 'America' or the land of Americo."

Further on he wrote:

The name "America," how it came to be applied

"We do not see why the name of the man of genius, Amerigo, who has discovered them, should not be given to these lands, as Europe and Asia have adopted the names of women."

The work appeared on April 25, 1507, under the title "Cosmographiae Introductio." It went through three editions, and copies

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nowadays bring high prices, over $600. Something like a dozen are known to exist, but the library of Saint-Die, though rich in rare black letters, does not possess a copy.

The town of Saint-Die has often been recognized as the godmother of America. In July, 1875, Henri Bardy, president of the Vosgian Philomathic Society, was invited to the international congress of Americanists as the representative of the little town. In 1891 Frank Mason, afterward Consul-General at Paris, published a work on "The Baptismal Font of America," and in 1892 a special hall was reserved at the Chicago Universal Exhibition for Saint-Die, where, with many views of the town, a copy of the celebrated work was shown, open at page 30, where the name "America" first made its appearance.

Spain, having gained the glory of discovering a New World, was not the nation to let slip any advantage within her grasp. Possessed, herself, of a mild climate, it was natural that she should give her attention to the southern or warmer portions of the continent her sons had discovered, leaving other nations to wrangle over the colder and less inviting sections. Hence her continued conquests and discoveries in the regions south of the Equator.

Ponce de Leon, 1512

A halo of romance lingers around the name of Ponce de Leon (*pon'tha-da-la-on'*). He was a noted Spanish soldier, a companion of Columbus on his second voyage, and belonged to an ancient and noble family. Although his locks bore the frost of many winters, and his shoulders were bending under the weight of years, his eye was bright, and the ambition of youth burned in his veins. A strange story came to his ears from the Indians in Southern America, who told of crystal fountains and streams, and of a miraculous spring, whose waters brought back youth and vigor to all who bathed in or partook of them.

The old cavalier was thrilled by this marvelous story. He thought of it by day and dreamed of it by night. His face was wrinkled, his muscles, hardened to iron in valiant conflict against the Moors, were losing their strength, his white locks were growing thin, and the passing years were pressing heavily upon him. Ah, if he could but find the Fountain of Youth! He resolved to go in search of it.

So, early in the spring of 1513, De Leon sailed from Porto Rico for the Bahamas, in quest of the wonderful fountain. He was wealthy enough to bear the whole expense of the expedition, for what

sum will not age give to regain the fresh beauty and activities of youth? Reaching the Bahamas, the old cavalier and his men visited the islands, one after the other, drinking from lake, stream, pond, spring, and rivulet, until compelled to admit that the Fountain of Youth must be sought for elsewhere. The ships sailed towards the northwest. By and by the gentle breezes brought with them the fragrance of flowers, and the hearts of the adventurers thrilled once more with hope. Far off, over the gently heaving sea, the soft wooded shores, aflame with brilliant color, rose to view. The perfume of the magnolia was rendered delicate by the ocean's balmy breezes, and the land seemed a veritable Paradise.

Discovery of Florida, Easter, 1513

"Here is the wonderful country! Here surely is the Fountain of Youth!" exclaimed the delighted De Leon, as he sprang ashore from the little boat and seemed already to feel the revivifying life in his veins. It was Easter morning, and the landing was made near the present city of St. Augustine. Religious ceremonies were held in commemoration of the sacred day, and possession of the supposed island was taken in the name of the Castilian Sovereign.

The happy discoverer gave the name of Florida to the new country, some say because he first saw it on Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*, Spanish for "flowery Easter"), while others claimed that it was on account of its flowery and blooming appearance. De Leon and his men prosecuted their search for the magical Fountain, but the sad truth soon forced itself upon them that the story was a myth. He cruised among the neighboring islands, and named them Tortugas, because of their abundance of turtles. Finally, he went back to Porto Rico, older and wiser than when he set out in search of the fabled spring. Although he had not found it, he had gained fame as the discoverer of one of the most interesting portions in America.

The old soldier now returned to Spain with an account of what he had seen. The King granted his request, and made him governor of Florida, on condition that he should plant a colony there. De Leon waited several years, during which the fact was established that Florida was not an island, but a part of the mainland. Finally, in 1521, he sailed from Porto Rico with two ships, and landed again in Florida, near where he had set foot eight years before. But the natives by this time had learned of the evil disposition of the white men, and so they gathered on the shore to dispute the landing of the Spaniards. A brisk battle followed, in which several of the white

De Leon's Second Landing in Florida, 1521

men were killed and others wounded. Among the latter was De Leon himself, who was so deeply pierced by an Indian arrow that he was taken to Cuba, where he died.

It was at this time that the Spaniards in Haiti became interested in the southern section of our country, on account of the reports brought to them by those who had visited it and made partial explorations. They said that gold abounded, and that the sturdy natives were the best of slaves. A company was formed in Haiti, at the head of which was Lucas Vasquez D'Allyon (*dal-yon'*), a wealthy colonist. An expedition, consisting of two ships, left Haiti in 1520, and landed on the coast of South Carolina. The simple-minded natives treated these visitors with hospitality, and the Spaniards showed them the utmost kindness, until their suspicion was lulled. Then, having enticed a number on board, they held them prisoners and sailed away. Many of the kidnapped natives were so heartbroken that they refused to eat or drink, and ere long died, while one of the vessels foundered at sea, and all on board were lost. D'Allyon carried the remaining natives to Haiti, where they were made slaves and subjected to the greatest cruelty.

D'Allyon's Expedition, 1520

FATAL WOUNDING OF DE LEON

D'Allyon, like nearly all of the early Spanish discoverers and explorers, was a curse to the country. He deserved the sharpest punishment for his perfidy; but the sovereign of Spain appointed him ruler of the Carolina country, with authority to plant a colony there. The natives seemed to have forgotten his baseness, and he began a settlement near the present site of Beaufort, South Carolina.

The colony was hardly established when a delegation of Indians

waited upon D'Allyon, and invited the Spaniards to join them in a feast, near the mouth of the river. The invitation was accepted by two hundred, who were treated with the greatest hospitality during the feasting, which lasted for three days and nights. At last, the surfeited Spaniards lay down and slept, and while they did so the Indians fell upon and massacred them all. Then they rushed to where the others were building their houses, and attacked them with the utmost fury. Many were killed, but a few escaped to the ships. Among them was D'Allyon, who was, however, mortally wounded. The crime of the cruel white men was avenged, and the first Europeans who attempted to settle within our present domain were blotted from the face of the earth.

THE STOWAWAY

Vasco Nunez de Balboa, 1501

Vasco Nunez de Balboa was a young Spanish adventurer of noble family, but so impoverished that, in 1501, he crossed the ocean to the West Indies in the hope of repairing his fortunes. He met with only partial success in Haiti, or Hispaniola, and once more fell into debt. In those days a person's creditors could put him in prison for his misfortune, and keep him there until he or his friends paid his indebtedness. Balboa had no intention of suffering this indignity, and he hit upon an ingenious scheme to escape from it. He caused himself to be nailed in a large barrel, among some others containing provisions, and was taken on board a vessel without the captain or any of the crew suspecting the ruse. When the vessel was fairly at sea, Balboa broke out of his prison and presented himself before the captain, who was so angered because of the deception that he threatened to leave the young man on the first uninhabited island they sighted. Balboa, however, succeeded in winning the good-will of the chief officer, who did not carry out his threat.

The vessel, after many mishaps, landed its officers and crew at a village on the banks of a river, which the natives called Darien. Quarrels arose among the Spaniards, and the plotting Balboa succeeded in placing himself at their head. Soon after, he heard accounts of an immense ocean to the westward, where gold was as abundant as pebbles on the seashore. Balboa was fired with the ambition to make the great discovery, and to gather the enormous reported wealth, which no white man had yet claimed, for none knew of its existence.

Balboa at Darien 1510 to 1514

Balboa applied to Don Diego Columbus (the son of Christopher), in Hispaniola, for men and supplies with which to cross the isthmus, for he was told that he would have to fight his way to the shores of the great sea. He left Darien with nearly two hundred men, a number of bloodhounds, and several Indian guides. The firearms of the Spaniards spread consternation and death among the natives, who could make only a weak defence with their spears and bows and arrows.

Discovery of the Pacific Ocean, Sept. 26, 1513

Just before noon, on the 26th of September, 1513, Balboa halted at the base of a rocky mountain peak, and ordered his men to hold their places while he ascended the promontory alone. They obeyed, and watched him as he laboriously climbed upward. When he reached the highest point, they saw him pause and stand like one overcome with rapture and awe. Such indeed was the truth, for Balboa was gazing upon the mightiest ocean of the globe. The wicked man forgot his vileness for the time, and, sinking upon his knees, poured out his soul in thankfulness to God, for the great discovery which He had permitted him to make.

When he was able to master his emotion, he turned and beckoned to his followers to join him, and they eagerly did so. They, too, were profoundly impressed with the grandeur of the discovery, and united with him in thanks to Heaven. They promised to stand by him to the death in his efforts to conquer the country for their King, and to win wealth for themselves. Balboa called the vast body of water the South Sea. It was Magellan (who, some years later, sailed through the straits bearing his name, and died while trying to circumnavigate the globe) who named it the Pacific Ocean, because its waters are calmer than those of the Atlantic.

Balboa took possession of the sea, its coast, and all the islands, in the name of the sovereigns of Spain, and a paper to that effect was

drawn up and signed by himself and sixty-seven soldiers who had climbed the summit after him. A tree was cut down and made into the form of a cross, which was planted in the earth as a sacred memorial of what had been done. The party now descended the mountain and advanced to meet the tide, which was flowing in. Balboa entered the water until it rose almost to his waist, when, with drawn sword, he again shouted that he took possession of the seas and islands in the name of the sovereigns of Spain. Another certificate was drawn up and signed, and then the ceremonies were considered at an end.

Balboa made several voyages along the Pacific coast, and learned of the rich kingdom of Peru, which was afterwards conquered by Pizarro, one of the most cruel and avaricious of men. Nearly all of the early Spanish explorers treated the natives with revolting barbarity. A rival, named Davila, brought charges against Balboa, and beheaded him at Acla, in Central America, in 1517.

Death of Balboa, 1517

Pamphilio de Narvaez (*nar-vah'eth*) succeeded Cortez, the cruel conqueror of Mexico, and in June, 1527, sailed with six hundred men in five vessels, commissioned by his King to conquer and rule Florida, where it was believed that vast wealth awaited garnering. He remained for a long time in Cuba, from which he finally set out with four hundred men and nearly a hundred horses. He landed at Tampa Bay, in April, 1528, and assumed possession of the country, the terrified natives fleeing before his approach.

Pamphilio de Narvaez in Florida, 1528

One of the strangest facts connected with the early, and, in many cases, the later history of our country, is that the men who set foot on our shores with the purpose of reclaiming the land rarely, if ever, sought to win the good-will of the Indians by treating them with justice and kindness. We have shown that Thorwald, the Norseman, was killed because of his wanton massacre of some unoffending natives; while those who, five hundred years later, came after him were as short-sighted and savage as he. It would be thought that when a party of explorers entered an unknown country, self-interest would lead them to strive to gain the good-will of the people, who were ready not only to bring them food, but had the power to inflict great injury upon them. Such, however, was not the case.

Spanish Inhumanity towards the Indians

De Narvaez relied upon his weapons to conquer a country which might have been gained without the shedding of a drop of blood. When an Indian chief was captured, Narvaez cut off his nose, and

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his Cuban bloodhounds were kept busy rending with their fangs the hapless captives. Such barbarities caused the natives to look upon the invaders as monsters whom they resolved to destroy—a fate which they well deserved.

Ordering his ships to sail along the coast, De Narvaez advanced into the interior, where, from what he had been told, he expected to find an Indian town as full of gold and precious stones, and as highly

THE SOLE SURVIVOR

Bitter Experiences

civilized, as those which welcomed Pizarro in Peru. But the bitterest of disappointments met him. In place of gold and silver and abundant food, they came upon dismal swamps, tangled forests, smothering heat, starvation, and the hostility of the natives, who fired their arrows with deadly effect from the surrounding woods. When it became clear that destruction awaited them if they advanced De Narvaez and his men turned and retraced their footsteps.

The return march was dreadful beyond description. They had to wade pestilential morasses, with the slime up to their shoulders; meeting venomous reptiles, the hot, unhealthful climate, wire-like vines,

DE SOTO'S RETURN TO SPAIN

brambles as sharp as needles, tormenting insects, and, above all, the ceaseless attacks of the natives, who gave them rest neither day nor night. When, at last, the few wretched survivors reached the coast and looked longingly out upon the Gulf of Mexico, they saw nothing of the wished-for ships. But the sea offered the only chance of saving their lives, and, after much difficulty, they built one or two boats, in which they placed a small quantity of Indian corn, and then began sailing along the coast in the direction of the mouth of the Mississipi. The most frightful sufferings, however, overtook them, for their water and provisions gave out, and the boats were scattered by one of those fierce gales called "northers." De Narvaez perished, and but one Spaniard out of the entire expedition lived to reach Spain. This man, although a captive for eight years among the Indians, gradually worked his way across what is now Texas to a port on the Gulf of California, where he was befriended by his countrymen. He finally returned to his home, like one risen from the dead, and published an account of his amazing adventures.

Sufferings of Narvaez's Expedition

Disaster and misfortune could not repress the Spanish greed for conquest and riches. The tales of suffering, failure, and death served rather to whet the appetite of the adventurers, who would not believe the New World would ever fail to yield to them of its fabled riches and overflowing mineral wealth.

One of the men who had helped Pizarro to conquer Peru was Hernando de Soto. He returned to Spain wealthy and famous, and, when he proposed to lead an expedition for the conquest of Florida, the eager volunteers were so numerous that he had only to select those whom he wished to accompany him. The sovereign was quite willing to authorize the expedition when De Soto agreed to bear the whole expense. The King made him governor of Cuba, and captain-general of all the provinces which he might conquer. The six hundred adventurers who flocked to the standard of the elegant cavalier, then not forty years old, belonged to the noblest families of Spain.

Hernando de Soto, 1539 to 1542

The expedition consisted of ten vessels, seven of which were of large size. All were in high spirits, and so abundantly supplied with provisions that music, dancing, and feasting, and an endless round of gayety marked the voyage to Cuba, where De Soto spent a year in perfecting his plans for the conquest of Florida. These were of the most detailed and comprehensive character. Public affairs in Cuba were left in charge of his beautiful young wife and a lieuten-

ant-governor, while a vessel was sent in advance to Florida to kidnap some natives to serve as guides and interpreters.

European Perfidy and Indian Cruelty

On the 30th of May, 1539, the fleet of nine vessels and a thousand men, with swine, cattle, mules, and horses, anchored in Tampa Bay, in sight of the spot where De Narvaez, eleven years before, had set out on his ill-starred expedition. The fateful lesson of that venture was lost upon De Soto, who made an attempt to capture the natives almost as soon as he set foot in the country; but the Indians

DE SOTO'S EXPEDITION

had not forgotten the perfidy of their former visitors, and kept themselves beyond reach. In one of the attacks, a captive Spaniard was discovered and released, and proved to be an invaluable interpreter to De Soto.

Slaughter a Pastime

The invaders were supplied with fire-arms and the best weapons then known. Their heavy armor was invulnerable to the spears and arrows of the natives, and the slaughter of the poor creatures became a pastime, attended only by a slight degree of danger to the Spaniards, who did not neglect to take with them a number of fierce bloodhounds from Cuba. But the Indians were desperate, and they

began fighting the invaders, and continued to fight them, contesting every rod of the ground from the hour they landed. Nor did they omit to repay cruelty with cruelty, for when a prisoner fell into their hands they meted out to him the same torture that was inflicted upon their own unfortunate comrades.

The barbarities of the Spaniards were shocking beyond belief. There was no indignity, no cruelty, no outrage which was not perpetrated upon the hapless men, women and children; but the retaliation of the warriors was so unsparing that De Soto invited a powerful Creek chief to meet him for a friendly talk. The chief scorned the invitation, called the white men by their right name, and gave them warning that he would never cease making war upon them, as long as one of the accursed race remained in the country. This threat was carried out to the letter, not only by that chief, but by his associates. Unable to defeat the Spaniards in open warfare, they resorted to ambush and stealthy surprises, and killed scores, whose heads were chopped off and carried on the ends of poles to their leaders.

Indian Reprisals

De Soto wintered near the present site of Tallahassee, and in early spring marched northward, where he had been told that gold abounded. An Indian queen, who welcomed him with the gentlest hospitality and made him numerous presents, was made a prisoner and held as a hostage for the good behavior of her people towards the invaders. She succeeded after a time in effecting her escape, and became one of the bitterest enemies of the "Christians," who were a hundredfold more perfidious than the most treacherous and bloodthirsty of her race.

It would be tedious to give the particulars of De Soto's long and aimless wanderings through the southwestern section of our country, for the same story of outrage was daily repeated. There was brutality or treachery on the part of the Spaniards, and relentless enmity on the part of the Indians. The latter suffered much greater losses in open combat because of the inferiority of their weapons; but they far outnumbered the white men, who slowly but surely melted away before their incessant attacks.

De Soto's Ill-starred Wanderings

The course of De Soto has never been traced with certainty. He and his dwindling followers crossed northern Georgia and northeastern Alabama, where a terrific onslaught was made upon them by the Mobilian Indians, in which, though the latter were defeated, they inflicted great loss upon the Spaniards.

Onslaught by the Mobilian Indians

Learning that his ships were in Pensacola Bay, doubtless with an abundance of supplies, De Soto determined to march thither. He discovered, however, that a plot had been formed to seize the ships and sail for Peru, leaving him behind. The enraged leader then faced the other way, and, to the dismay of his followers, the northward march was resumed in November, 1540.

The fighting was renewed, and waged with the same fury as before. The winter, which was a severe one, was passed in the country of the Chickasaws, around the upper tributaries of the Yazoo. When about to resume the march in the spring, a furious engagement took place with the Chickasaws, in which the Spaniards narrowly escaped annihilation. It was a forlorn, woe-begone company which in April began tramping again through the wilderness, blindly groping for the land where De Soto had been told he would find gold without stint.

Discovery of the Mississippi, May, 1541

In the month of May, 1541, the explorers reached the bank of the Mississippi River, above the mouth of the St. Francis. That great stream was full to overflowing, and the men stood a long time, actuated by a feeling of awe and admiration, for they were gazing upon one of the mightiest rivers in the world. They were the first Europeans to see that stream above its mouth, which had been observed as early as 1519 by Alvarez de Pineda.

But the famishing and weakened adventurers were not yet ready to give up their search for gold and for the Pacific Ocean, which they believed was now not far away. They crossed the Mississippi, and, it is believed, wandered to the westward, almost to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. The winter of 1541-42 was spent near the headwaters of the Arkansas, and in the spring they returned to the Mississippi, at a point a short distance north of the mouth of the Arkansas. There De Soto attempted to found a colony, having at last convinced himself that the gold which he had sought so long had no actual existence. The site selected was on the eastern shore, in Bolivar county, Mississippi.

The intense hostility of the Indians could not be overcome, and the explorer finally lost heart in the enterprise that had been undertaken with such high hopes and brilliant prospects. His only wish now was to reach Cuba, and join his wife and friends there. He had been wounded severely in battle, and his iron frame was weakened by suffering and disease. Under his direction, the construc-

DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

tion of two brigantines was begun, in which it was intended to float down the Mississippi, and cross the Gulf to Cuba. The work was hardly under way, when the virulent fever which had siezed De Soto warned him that death was at hand. At his request, his attendants carried him from his wretched hut and gently laid him down under the shade of a leafy oak. There he called his friends around him, asked their forgiveness for all the harm he had done them, urged

DEATH OF DE SOTO

them to keep together, received the administrations of the priests, bade farewell to all, and closed his eyes in death. His body was consigned to the waters of the Mississippi, lest the Indians should wantonly desecrate the grave.

Death of De Soto

What a sad ending of a magnificent enterprise! The one thousand men, including the flower of the Castilian chivalry, armed from head to foot, furnished with ammunition, supplies, horses, and everything that could be needed, and animated by the thirst of conquest and glory, with the lure before their eyes of untold riches, were now reduced to three hundred emaciated vagrants, clothed in rags,

or the skins of wild animals. Unspeakably depressed at the loss of their leader, they placed his body in a rude coffin, made by partially hollowing out the trunk of an oak, and, in the darkness of midnight, sank the weighted remains, as we have said, to the bottom of the river.

Return of the Hapless Expedition

The miserable band, left to themselves, spent a year in wandering through the wilderness to the west of the Mississippi, hoping to find the city of Mexico. Finally, they returned to the river and launched the brigantines, in which they floated down stream to the Spanish settlement of Panuco, on the coast of Mexico, where they arrived in September. Thence they visited the capital and were entertained by the viceroy. Havana was thrown into gloom by the tidings of the hapless expedition, and the wife of De Soto, who had waited so long for her husband, sank into a decline and died of a broken heart.

THE WARRING NATIONS

CHAPTER VI

THE FRENCH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA

[*Authorities:* Vol. II. Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America;" the standard U. S. histories; the chief Canadian and French-Canadian histories of Kingsford, Miles, Charlevoix; "Champlain's Voyages," and Abbe Ferland's "Canada." Pope's monograph on "Jacques Cartier," and Machar's "Stories of New France," are interesting works, and chiefly so are the brilliant narratives of Parkman, "Pioneers of France in the New World" and "Jesuits in North America in the 17th Century." The Canadian histories may also be referred to for an account of the attempts at founding a Huguenot colony in Acadia, with Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America".]

IN the foregoing pages, the activity of Spain has been shown in pushing her explorations in America. These, it will be remembered, were mostly confined to the southern portions, but that nation was not left to press her exploring enterprises alone.

Maritime Activity Under Francis I.

We have learned that the other leading maritime powers were Portugal, England, and France, to which must also now be added Holland. England was tardy in moving, and allowed a hundred years to roll by after the discoveries of the Cabots before she made any serious attempt at exploration or settlement. Holland, after gaining her independence from Spain, preferred opening new avenues for trade, and waited until she saw a chance of profitable barter with the natives before giving much attention to the New World. France, however, grew jealous of the success of Spain, and soon sent her navigators and explorers to spy out and claim portions of the land on the other side of the Atlantic.

The first French expedition was undertaken in the reign of Francis

I. by John Verrazzani (*va-rah-zah'ny*), a native of Italy, which country, it will have been seen, furnished the chief navigators and explorers connected with the New World. Verrazzani sailed from the Madeiras in January, 1524, in command of three ships; but two were disabled by a severe storm, and he continued his voyage with only one. Two months later, he reached the American coast along which he cruised for several months. A letter which Verrazzani wrote to his king is relied upon by historians for an account of his discoveries, but the information contained in that letter is so vague that many discredit the entire narrative.

Verrazzani's Voyage, 1524

JOHN VERRAZZANI

According to Verrazzani's story, he first sighted the coast of North Carolina in March, 1524. He landed a small company of men near Albemarle Sound, where they were treated hospitably, and returned the kindness by kidnapping a native child. As a consequence, the Indians formed a hatred of the whites, which showed itself more than half a century later, when the English attempted to settle the region.

Verrazzani seems to have pushed his voyage northward as far as the coast of Maine, touching at various points, such as New York and Narragansett Bay, and assiduously seeking for the shorter passage to India, which had been sought by Columbus and the Cabots. He named the country *New France*, and returning home, vanishes from the pages of history. There is some reason for believing that he made other voyages to this country, and to Verrazzani must be given the credit of first declaring the correct theory of the size of the globe, in opposition to that maintained by all other navigators of his time.

Jacques Cartier's First Visit to Canada, 1534

France waited ten years before showing any further interest in the New World. On April 20, 1534, Jacques Cartier (*kar'-te-a*) a skillful navigator, sailed from St. Malo, in command of two ships, of sixty tons each, with a crew of one hundred and twenty men. Some weeks later he reached the coast of Newfoundland, and sailed through the straits of Belle Isle into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In July of the same year he entered Bay Chaleur, and explored the Gaspe coast. This he took possession of in the name of France, and set up a rough wooden cross as a token of French sovereignty over

the region. The shield which hung upon the cross bore the lilies of France, and a carved inscription—*Vive le Roi de France*! ("Long live the King of France!"). The savage chief, who with his followers gathered round and curiously watched the ceremonies, suspected the meaning, and gave Cartier to understand by signs that he was King there, and did not intend that any one else should dispute his claim. The Frenchman soothed him by explaining that the cross was intended to serve as a beacon to mariners.

Cartier spent several weeks in further explorations, but soon returned to France, where his report so pleased the King that he sent him on a second expedition in the following spring. On this voyage, Cartier had three ships, the largest of which was of one hundred and twenty tons. These entered the Straits of Belle Isle, July 26, 1535. His hope of finding the shorter route to India was overthrown by observing, as he ascended the St. Lawrence, that its width narrowed and its waters became fresh. He gave the present name to the gulf, as he had entered it on St. Lawrence's day, and the designation was afterwards extended to the river.

Cartier's Second Expedition 1535

The leisurely ascent of the stream continued until the explorers anchored at the Indian village of Stadacona, near the site of the present city of Quebec. There, at the entrance of the St. Charles River, the larger ships were left, and Cartier continued his ascent in his smallest ship. The Indians welcomed him with friendly greetings. After his first visit to the St. Lawrence, Cartier had taken two of the natives with him to France, promising to bring them back on his second visit. He kept his promise; and they not only had a wonderful story to tell of their experience, and of what they saw, but did good service by acting as interpreters.

JACQUES CARTIER

Cartier and his men, after ascending the river to Hochelaga (now Montreal), returned to Stadacona and there spent the winter. The season was an unusually severe one, and occasioned much suffering to Cartier and his crews, many of whom were attacked with the scurvy. A pestilence, moreover, appeared among the Indians which affected the visitors, carrying off a number and reducing the others for a time to helplessness.

From the Original Drawing by Jules Turcas

CARTIER TAKES POSSESSION OF THE GASPE COAST

In the following spring, Cartier returned to France, arriving at St. Malo, July 17, 1536. Before sailing he invited a number of Indians on board his own ship, and treacherously carried them away with him; but, some years later, two of them succeeded in reaching their own country again. They had seen and learned a great deal of the strange country across the ocean, but formed a poor idea of the sense of right and the dictates of honor which actuated the white man and professing Christians.

Return of Cartier to France, 1536

The report taken home by Cartier this time was less favorable than before. The climate was so severe that the St. Lawrence was locked in the grip of the Ice King for several months each year, and nothing had been seen of either gold or precious stones. France was so engrossed in war that four years passed ere she gave her attention again to the New World. Then an expedition was placed under the command of M. de Roberval, a nobleman of Picardy. Cartier received a commission under him, for his knowledge of Canada was too valuable to be lost. The expedition sailed from St. Malo, in the spring of 1541, at the time that De Soto and his hapless followers were wandering through the wilderness and fighting the Indians in the South.

De Roberval's Expedition, 1541

Cartier was displeased with the idea of serving under Roberval, who had been appointed viceroy of Canada. So, when five of the vessels were ready and Roberval did not appear, Cartier sailed without him, leaving him to follow when he chose. In the latter part of August the ships arrived at Stadacona (Quebec). The Indians showed so much sullenness, because of the treachery of Cartier on his former visit, that he went further up the river, and chose a station for his ships at Cape Rouge; but the natives continued resentful, and the following summer Cartier sailed once more for France.

Entering the harbor of St. John's on his homeward voyage, he found Roberval there on his way to join the colony on the St. Lawrence. Cartier told his superior officer that the natives were so hostile that he dared not remain; the soil was not fertile; there were no diamonds; the winters were frightfully severe, and he advised Roberval to give up his project. But the leader believed that Cartier was moved by jealousy and wished to claim all the glory won thus far for himself. He asserted that he would ascend the St. Lawrence, and, if necessary, conquer the Indians, and ordered Cartier to accompany him with his ships. That night was dark and without a moon. By an

understanding with the captains of the other vessels, they slipped out undetected and made their way back to France, where Cartier spent the remainder of his life in retirement.

Although he was deserted by most of his men, Roberval did not give up the errand which had brought him across the ocean. He learned, however, that Cartier had told the truth. The Indians were hostile, and there was little in the climate or soil to tempt white men

ROBERVAL AND CARTIER IN THE CABIN OF THE VICEROY'S SHIP

to live in that part of the country. He made an effort to plant a settlement some distance above the site of Quebec, and built a fort there.

Failure of the Attempt at Colonization, 1542

One of the Canadian winters was enough for him. The following year all returned to France, and it was a long time before that country made the next serious effort to plant a colony in America. Then, mindful of the failures in Canada, attention was turned to the southern and more hospitable portions of the continent, where the Spaniards were striving to gain a permanent foothold.

Those of our readers who have studied the history of Europe need not be told that, at the time these incidents were taking place, there

The Reformation

were fierce religious wars going on in Europe. Luther and Melancthon led a revolt in Germany against the Church of Rome, and another revolt followed in Switzerland. The strife between the Protestants and Roman Catholics became bitter and prolonged. The Reformation, as it was called, made slight progress in France, from which John Calvin, the leading reformer, was banished. He found shelter, however, in Geneva, Switzerland, where he died in 1564.

The French Protestants were called Huguenots, and among the principal leaders left after the banishment of Calvin was Lord Admiral Coligny. He was a brave and honorable man, respected by all parties, and he persuaded the Queen to try to reconcile the opposing factions. The effort was a failure, and the persecutions which followed became so fierce that Coligny determined to find a refuge for the Huguenots in America. While doing this, the brave admiral was anxious to add to the glory of his beloved France.

In the month of February, 1562, Coligny sent out two ships from Havre, in charge of Captain John Ribault (*ree'-bo*), a skillful and experienced sailor, who, in addition to his trained crews, took a number of friends, led by curiosity and love of adventure, to visit the strange new lands beyond the sea.

Ribault's Expedition to Florida, 1562

Coasting southward, they reached the mouth of the St. Mary River, which now separates Florida from Georgia, up which they sailed. The Indians treated them with hospitality. The soft winds, the fragrant flowers and blossoms, the climbing vines, the wealth of vegetation, the feathered songsters, the birds with brilliant plumage, the mulberry trees, and the wild people with handsome figures and pleasing faces—all these made it seem to the voyagers that they had entered a land of enchantment. The devout and thankful Ribault wrote: "It is a thing unspeakable to consider the things that be here, and shall be found more and more in this incomparable land, which, never yet broken with plough-irons, bringeth forth all things according to its first nature, wherewith the eternal God endowed it."

As was usual under such circumstances, the Frenchmen took possession of the country in the name of their King, after returning thanks to God for His great mercies. Thus far they had every reason to be pleased with the result of their enterprise; for not only were the climate and soil favorable, and the natives friendly, but they saw that which was fascinating above everything else in their

eyes—an abundance of golden, silver and copper ornaments owned by the dusky people. Ribault and his friends believed they had found that which others had so long sought in vain.

The Huguenots soon embarked and sailed northward, inspecting the numerous islands and inlets which they saw, until the latter part of the month they dropped anchor in the fine harbor of Port Royal. After examining the surrounding country, Ribault was convinced that no more favorable spot could be found for a settlement. When he made known his decision to his men they were delighted,

A HOPELESS VOYAGE

and every one was eager to remain. Reminding them that he was hardly able to manage the ship alone, he placed thirty of the ablest-bodied of them in charge of Captain Albert De la Pierra, advised them wisely, and then set sail for France.

Settlement founded by Ribault near Beaufort, 1562

This attempt at settlement was made on a small island in Archer's Creek, a few miles from the present town of Beaufort, South Carolina. The men were eager and ardent and full of schemes for enhancing the glory of France and bettering their own personal fortunes. A fort had been erected by Ribault, who sailed, however,

before it was quite finished. It was named Fort Charles (*Carolus*, in Latin), and was soon put in excellent condition. That done, a sad change came over the colonists. The sight of gold had aroused their cupidity and fanned their dreams of great wealth. They believed that from the surrounding natives they could obtain immense riches, and with little effort on their part. What a waste of time, therefore, to clear the land and plant crops! They decided not to do so. Besides, Ribault had promised to send them provisions and supplies, and they were sure that there was no need of tilling the soil.

Mutiny at Fort Charles

It has been well said that an idle mind is the devil's workshop. The leader became so incensed with his mutinous men that he hanged one of them, and took such severe measures that they killed him, and appointed one of their number, named Barre, in his place. By this time they were in a woeful condition. The expected aid from Ribault did not arrive, and since they had neglected to plant crops, starvation lay before them. They became desperately homesick, and determined to make an attempt to reach France. With the help of the Indians they put together an amateurish craft, not fit to be used in navigating a millpond, and in it embarked upon a voyage of three thousand miles over the tempestuous Atlantic. The inevitable ensued. Storms and calms delayed the vessel until their scant provisions gave out. Several died of hunger, while others in their frenzy from drinking salt water, leaped into the sea and were drowned. When they had drawn lots and eaten one of their number, an English vessel appeared, which landed the feeblest in France and took the others prisoners to England.

The failure of Ribault to return to the colony was occasioned by the civil war, then raging in France. As soon as Admiral Coligny was able to do so (April, 1564), he sent out three ships, under Captain Rene de Laudonniere (*lo-done'e-air'*), whose purpose was to plant a settlement in the southern part of the country, from which so many favorable reports had been received.

Settlement at Saint John's Bluff Florida, 1564

The ships arrived in the St. John's river, Florida, in June, and anchored where those of Ribault had been moored. The Indians, as before, were friendly, and seemed to be happy at the prospect of having the white men for neighbors. Laudonniere selected the spot known as St. John's Bluff, where he began building a fort, in which labor the Indians cheerfully aided the Frenchmen.

The sight of the gold ornaments in the possession of the natives,

and their stories of the abundance of the precious metal and priceless stones, a short distance in the interior, soon wrought mischief among the colonists. Each was so eager to go in search of riches on his own account, that it was only by threats, and other severe measures, that the captain was able to restrain his men. By and by it was evident that the Indians had deceived them with the stories of fabulous wealth not far away. They were naturally angered when

THE SENTINEL

General Buccaneering

they learned the truth, and began plotting among themselves. A number of them seized two small vessels, turned pirates, and sailed for the West Indies. Laudonniere, on learning of the desertions, set to work and constructed two larger vessels with which to pursue and capture them. When the boats were finished Laudonniere was compelled to give the builders a commission, and they too turned buccaneers.

Matters went from bad to worse, until the arrival of Sir John Hawkins from England with several ships, one of which Laudonniere

LAUDONNIERE'S EXPEDITION

proposed to buy, intending to take the whole colony back to France. At this crisis, Ribault arrived, with a squadron of seven vessels. This occurred in the latter part of August, 1565, and a few days later five other ships were seen coming in from the sea. After being hailed several times, an alarming reply came from one of the vessels.

Menendez and his Spanish Squadron

The squadron was under the command of Pedro Menendez (*manen'deth*), of Spain, with a commission to destroy all the Lutheran French that had dared to settle on soil claimed by his country.

The situation of the French was most unfortunate. Three of their ships were a number of miles up the river, and knew nothing of their danger. The other four were so weak that they hurriedly put to sea and escaped. The Spaniards entered the River of Dolphins, a number of miles southward, and landed an armed force. The French ships hastened back to St. John's and told Ribault of the evident intention of their enemies. Ribault decided to attack the force that had been landed with his combined fleet and all his men. Laudonniere opposed the plan, as too dangerous, but the impetuous Ribault was not to be restrained, and persisted in his purpose. When their vessels were ready to assail the Spaniards at the River of Dolphins a furious storm scattered them.

Knowing the helpless condition in which the fort had been left, the savage Menendez made hasty preparations to march against it. It was no holiday excursion upon which the Spaniards entered, for the rain was falling in torrents, the darkness was intense, the woods and swamps were flooded, and the weather had become unusually chilly. The march was a long one, and so laborious and trying that it would seem that all the men must have perished had they not been sustained by their fierce hatred of the Lutheran French.

The storm continued without cessation day and night. The garrison in the fort did not think it possible that the most fanatical enmity could lead any foe to attack them at such a time. A single sentinel was on duty, and he was not alert. He had gathered his heavy cloak about him, so as to shelter his firelock, and paced dismally back and forth in his saturated garments, longing for the moment when the welcome relief should come.

The Unexpected Attack

Suddenly from the gloom a dozen figures leaped forward, and, seizing the guard, put him to death before he could make an outcry. Taken by surprise, the French were unable to make any defence. No mercy was shown to man, woman, or child. One hundred and

Massacre of the French by the Spaniards, Sept., 1565

forty-two were massacred, while the Spaniards did not lose a man. Some of the garrison, leaping from their beds, managed to dash into the woods, where they crouched and shivered, or fled through the darkness and storm. The wretched fugitives were pursued and most of them captured and hanged on the limbs of trees, and over the head of each, Menendez caused the inscription to be nailed: "I do this, not as to Frenchmen, but as to Lutherans."

A JUST PUNISHMENT

Among the few who escaped was Laudonniere. He hid in a swamp until his peril became less imminent, when he and a companion stole out to the vessels which Ribault had left behind, and then sailed for France.

A cruel fate seemed for the time to be on the side of the merciless Menendez. Learning from the Indians that the Frenchmen who had set out to attack him at the mouth of the River of Dolphins were shipwrecked on Anastasia Island, he marched thither with a force not half so numerous as the French. He made them believe, however, that he had so many men that they were at his mercy. When

they begged for quarter he promised it, and they surrendered. The next step of the miscreant was to select the Catholics and a few of the more useful workmen, who were reprieved. The others he ordered instantly to be shot.

Meanwhile, Ribault's vessels were wrecked on the Florida coast, but all his men fortunately escaped, and he led them through the forest to Fort Charles, unaware of its fall. When he found himself confronted by Menendez, the latter, as in the former case, made him believe that the Spanish force was overwhelmingly the superior, and Ribault agreed to surrender. Two hundred of his men, however, knew too well the value of the leader's pledge, and they marched off to the southward, preferring to die in the woods rather than trust to the honor of a Spaniard.

The prisoners, among whom was Ribault, where shot down like dogs. When the Frenchmen who finally escaped, reached their country the news of the outrages caused intense indignation. The relatives of the murdered colonists, joined by Admiral Coligny, appealed to their sovereign for redress, but no notice was taken of the prayer, nor was even a remonstrance sent to the Spanish court.

Retaliation by De Gourgues, 1568

But if the government was so base, there was one among its subjects whose soul burned with uncontrollable resentment. He was the Chevalier Dominique de Gourgues (*da Goorg*), of Gascony, a devout Roman Catholic, who, when made a prisoner by the Spaniards some years before, had been condemned to the humiliation of the galleys. He was so enraged on learning of the sufferings of his countrymen, that he fitted out an expedition at his own expense, selling all his property to gain the necessary means. His expedition consisted of three small vessels, a hundred soldiers, and eighty sailors. The project was kept a secret, so as to prevent any warning being sent to the Spaniards. When he sailed, it was given out that the destination was the coast of Africa, and few suspected the truth.

In the spring of 1568, the French squadron entered the mouth of a small river to the north of the St. John's. The trumpeter had served under Laudonniere, and when he went ashore, he was delighted to find that the leading chief was an old friend of Laudonniere, and had with him at that time as a companion a French soldier who had escaped the massacre. The chief invited De Gourgues to visit him, and he did so, the soldier acting as interpreter.

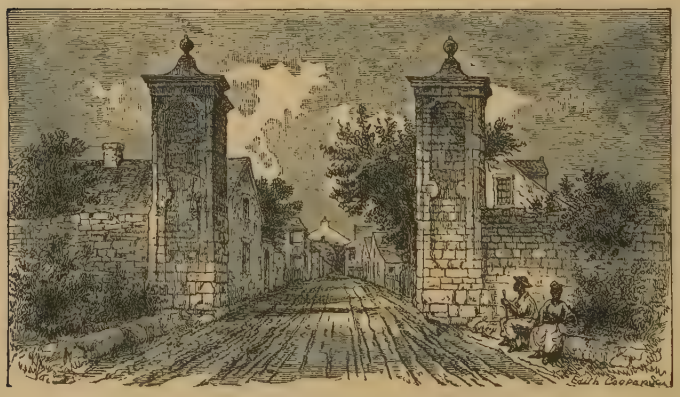
The Indian leader expressed the most intense hatred of the Span-

iards, who, he said, had used his people with savage cruelty, because of their kindness to the suffering Frenchmen. When De Gourgues asked the chief if he would join him in punishing the bad men, he and his warriors showed vehement eagerness to do so. An alliance was formed, and the necessary preparations were quickly made. The work was carried out with grim thoroughness and dispatch. The hundreds of Indians who joined the French were so eager for the fray that it was impossible to restrain them. The surprised Spaniards could offer no effectual resistance, and were compelled to act the part of the unfortunate Huguenots, who trusted to their pledges three years before. The defenders were shot down without mercy, and the few that were for the time spared were hanged under the very trees where the French had perished in a similar manner, and over their heads De Gourgues caused to be placed the following inscription:

"I do this not unto Spaniards and Maranes (Moors), but as unto traitors, robbers, and murderers."

Founding of St. Augustine, 1565

Menendez was at St. Augustine, and knowing that he was too weak to encounter him, De Gourgues sailed for France, first utterly destroying, with the help of the Indians, the forts on the St. John's. St. Augustine was founded in 1565, and it will always be memorable from the fact that it was the first permanent European settlement planted within the present limits of the United States.



OLD GATE OF ST. AUGUSTINE

CHAPTER VII

THE ENGLISH EXPLORERS IN AMERICA

[*Authorities*: England's part in exploratory adventure in the New World had its heroic period in the reign of Elizabeth, when her annals are made brilliant with the achievements of her great seamen, Frobisher, Davis, Drake, Humphrey Gilbert, and his kinsman, Sir Walter Raleigh. How the period glows with the newly awakened maritime spirit may be seen by the perusal of such works as Froude's "English Seamen of the 16th Century," Markham's "Sea Fathers," Low's "Maritime Discovery," Bourne's "English Seamen," and Hakluyt's "Early Voyages," and other publications of the Hakluyt Society. Creighton's "Age of Elizabeth," in Epochs of Modern History Series, and Hind's "England of Elizabeth," may also be profitably consulted. The story of English colonization in America will be best gathered from Doyle's "English Colonies in America," Thwaite's "The Colonies," Fisher's "Colonial Era," and the local histories of Newfoundland, Canada, New England, and Virginia.]

MEANWHILE, England had been stirred to activity by the work of both Spain and France in America. It might naturally be supposed that that great nation would take pride in what was done by the Cabots, who were the real discoverers of the continent of North America; but those navigators had set out to find a northwest passage to India, and failing to do so, their enterprise, for a long time, was not looked upon as possessing much merit.

Now, however, England saw that she must bestir herself, to prevent the grand prizes from slipping from her grasp. She was not yet ready to give up the belief that the coveted northwest route existed and could be found, and so in June, 1576, Martin Frobisher sailed with three small vessels in search of the passage. He sighted Greenland, coasted along Labrador, and entered the inlet north of

Frobisher's Voyages, 1576 to 1578

MARTIN FROBISHER

Hudson Bay, which ever since has borne his name. He made a second voyage in 1577, and a third in 1578, but his discoveries were of little value, since the region he visited seemed too cold and inhospitable ever to become the abode of civilized men.

Francis Drake, at that time, was engaged in circumnavigating the globe. He sailed from Plymouth in the latter part of 1577, with a squadron of five vessels, his principal object being to chastise the Spaniards at whose hands he had himself suffered much.

Sir Francis Drake's Expedition, 1577 to 1580

The voyages of Sir Francis Drake are among the most glorious in the annals of England.* He passed down the eastern coast of South America, and sailed through the Straits of Magellan in September, 1578. Ascending the Pacific coast, he plundered the Spanish settlements in Chile and Peru, and loaded his fleet with gold and silver captured from the ships of the enemy. He took possession of California in the name of his sovereign, calling it New Albion, and then, feeling that his important work was finished, sailed for home.

Encircles the Earth

His squadron, with which he had done so much, was too weak to meet the fleets that he knew were searching for him, so he sought a passage around the northern coast of America. The ice, speedily, however, drove him back, and he crossed the Pacific and the Indian Oceans, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and dropped anchor at Plymouth in September, 1580. It was because of this remarkable voyage that Queen Elizabeth conferred the honor of knighthood upon Drake. But the achievements of this great navigator were by no means completed. He threw all his energies into the war against Spain, which country he hated with great bitterness. Before a year had passed, he captured and destroyed Carthagena in South America, besides a number of other towns in the vicinity; burned Forts St. Augustine and Antonio; plundered many other places in the West

*This great naval hero was vice-admiral, under Lord Howard, of the English fleet that repulsed the Spanish Armada. Perhaps his most daring enterprise was his expedition, in 1587, to Lisbon, where, having learned of a Spanish fleet lying in the Bay of Cadiz destined to form part of the Armada, he courageously entered the port and burnt upwards of 10,000 tons of shipping—a feat which he jocosely termed "singeing the King of Spain's beard." Drake was born in 1539 and died in 1595.

Indies, and took home a perishing English colony from Roanoke Island in 1585. He performed many other exploits, and won great renown for himself and England.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh,* and both were favorites of Queen Elizabeth. Gilbert was a famous soldier, of noble mind and purpose and belonged to one of the most eminent families in England. When, therefore, he proposed to plant a colony in America, he met with little difficulty; Sir Walter Raleigh advanced him what funds he needed, and he sailed for America in the latter part of 1579. Tremendous storms forced the ships to return, and four years passed before the attempt was renewed. Finally, in June, 1583, another venture was made from Plymouth.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert's Expedition, 1583

The fleet included the *Raleigh*, a vessel of two hundred tons burden, the *Golden Hind* and the *Swallow*, each of forty tons, the *Delight*, of one hundred and twenty tons, and the *Squirrel*, of ten tons. A few days out, however, the *Raleigh* turned about and came back to port. In the following August the vessels entered the harbor of St. John's, Newfoundland, and Gilbert took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. During the stay there misfortune came to the enterprise. A number of the crew fell ill and died, others became mutinous, and a plot was formed to take possession of the ships. This being defeated, the mutineers seized a fishing-smack and put to sea. Gilbert then sent the *Swallow* home with the sick and most of the disaffected crew.

Mutiny of Gilbert's Sailors

While exploring the coasts southward, a tempest wrecked the largest vessel of the fleet, and one hundred lives were lost. The commander and a few of his crew were saved and took refuge on the little *Squirrel*. The weather continued so bad, and the fleet was so crippled, that Gilbert decided to return to England, with the intention of coming back and continuing his explorations in the following spring. The tempestuous weather did not abate, but Sir Humphrey showed no fear in the tiny *Squirrel*. On that dark September night

*Raleigh (*Raw'li*) was a great Elizabethan courtier, soldier, and mariner, who took an active part in colonizing schemes in the New World, which he munificently supported from his own purse. He also took a loyal part in England's preparations to repel the Spanish Armada, and actively commanded a ship on the occasion. Politically, he fell under the censure of both Queen Elizabeth and James I., and for reasons of state was imprisoned for many years in the Tower of London, where he wrote and published (1614) "A History of the World." In 1628 he was beheaded.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH was the most liberal backer and promoter of the early attempts to colonize Virginia, exhausting all his resources in that undertaking.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT, half brother to Sir Walter Raleigh, a famous soldier and noble colonizer, led the early expeditions to Virginia. His loss by shipwreck was a severe blow to Raleigh.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE was one of the world figures in his day. He circumnavigated the globe, and was conspicuous on sea and land in different parts of the world.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

THREE NOTED EXPLORERS AND NAVIGATORS

the boat went to the bottom of the ocean, with the brave captain and his faithful companions.

Sir Walter Raleigh mourned the loss of his noble half-brother, but believed in his schemes of colonization, and he devoted himself with energy and lavish expenditure to carrying them out. The Queen gave him a new and more liberal patent, and in June, 1584, two ships, in charge of Captain Arthur Barlow, set out to find the most desirable place for planting a colony. They took the southerly and more favorable route, and after exploring the coast of North Carolina for several days, they came to anchor in Pamlico Sound. The Indians flocked around them in their canoes, and treated them with the greatest hospitality and friendship. The English were equally kind to them, so that the best of feeling soon prevailed. When the ships returned to England to report, two of the Indians willingly went with them and were brought back in the following year.

Raleigh's Second Expedition, 1584

The story told by these explorers charmed the Queen and delighted Raleigh. Elizabeth declared the event one of the most glorious of her reign, and Raleigh was knighted. He named the immense region *Virginia*, in honor of the illustrious virgin Queen, and took steps for colonizing, as soon as he could, the fertile and inviting country. Seven ships sailed out of Plymouth harbor in April, 1585, with full crews and one hundred and eighty colonists, under command of Sir Richard Grenville, one of the bravest of men,* who, however, cared more for buccaneering than for planting a colony in the wilds of the New World. He did a good deal of plundering of Spanish ships on the way, and fostered a spirit of unrest and adventure on the part of the settlers. The American coast was sighted in July, and after a leisurely cruise, they landed on Roanoke Island.

Raleigh's Third Expedition, 1585

More than a week was spent in exploring the surrounding country, the Indians showing the same kindness as before, when an incident took place which makes one doubt whether Grenville was a fool or a knave. While visiting an Indian village, one of the white

*For a characterization of Sir Richard Grenville, and an example of his undaunted English spirit, see Lord Tennyson's heroic ballad of the fleet of 1591, entitled "The Revenge." The poem follows the incidents of the memorable sea-fight, as narrated in Hakluyt's Voyages, in which Sir Richard Grenville engaged, alone, a Spanish fleet of fifty-three sail, repulsing the enemy fifteen times, and, despite the unequal action, sending four ships and about a thousand men to the bottom.

men missed a silver cup. Grenville demanded that it should be returned at once, and because of the delay in complying with his order, he burned the village and destroyed all the standing corn. Little dreaming of the unquenchable hatred caused by this wanton outrage, Grenville left the colonists soon after and returned to England.

Ralph Lane, a distinguished soldier and civilian, now became Governor of the colony. He was so harsh towards the Indians that they became deadly enemies of the white men. When Lane set out to find some copper mines, of which he had heard, he met with so determined an hostility on the part of the natives that he was obliged to return. The Indians refused to furnish any provisions, which had now become so scarce that the settlers were in danger of starvation. Fortunately at this crisis Sir Francis Drake appeared off the coast with his fleet and took the homesick colonists back to England. Several of the settlers carried with them some tobacco leaf, the use of which was thus introduced into Europe.

Raleigh's Last Expedition, 1587

Raleigh was still undismayed by the mishaps that had overtaken his enterprises. In April, 1587, he dispatched another expedition, consisting of three ships, with one hundred and fifty men and women on board of them. John White was appointed Governor of the colony, and the men under his charge were much better fitted to be pioneers, than their predecessors. They came, not to seek for silver and gold, but to make homes for themselves in the New World, of which they had received so many pleasing accounts. All this was good, but the trouble with the settlers on Roanoke was that they did not agree among themselves. They quarreled from the beginning. One of White's assistants was killed by the Indians while searching for shellfish on the beach, and a number of friendly natives were attacked under the supposition that they were hostile.

About this time, Mrs. Eleanor Dare, whose father was Governor White, had a daughter born to her, to which was given the name of Virginia Dare. She was the first English child born in America.

Governor White decided to return to England with the ships for supplies which would soon be needed. He left behind him eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and two children, among them being his daughter, Mrs. Dare. It was his intention to return with the least possible delay; but when he reached England he found a general alarm over the impending invasion by Spain. The services of every one were needed, and despite all he could do, it was not until

April, 1590, that Raleigh was able to send White back with two shiploads of supplies.

Succor for Raleigh's Second Colony

It is a strange and pathetic story which follows. Governor White was eager to greet his daughter and the friends whom he had not seen for many a day. Before his ships had come to anchor he was thrilled with hope at the sight of a column of smoke over Roanoke Island. This he accepted as a sign that all was well, and guns were fired to let the colonists know that relief had arrived. The next morning boats were lowered and rowed in the direction of the smoke, which, before it was reached, appeared at another point, and so far off that a good many hours were spent in rowing to the spot. When it was reached, the disappointing discovery was made that the vapor was a delusion. There was neither smoke nor camp-fire. The following day while the boats were making their way to shore to obtain water, one of them was swamped and six sailors were drowned. This caused a superstitious fear, and the remainder of the men for a time would not go on. They were finally persuaded, and in the dusk of early evening began their tramp over the island in the direction of the spot where, White assured them, they would find their friends.

As the Englishmen advanced, they saw lights twinkling a short distance ahead, and were sure they would soon greet their relatives and old acquaintances, whom they had not seen or heard from for so long a time. And what news they would tell them of dear old England, thousands of miles away across the ocean! How they would be thrilled by the story of the destruction of that "Invincible Armada," with which Spain expected to capture and make desolate the kingdom, and what a world of other tidings they had to relate!

Defeat of the Spanish Armada, July, 1588

The visitors broke into shouts and songs, which ought to have brought a response; but when they listened all was still. At daybreak, they reached the spot where White had parted with the settlers, but nothing of them was seen. There were numerous imprints of moccasins, and upon the bark of one of the trees were carved the three letters "C R O." White explained that when he left his friends, three years before, they were considering the question of removing to the mainland. They agreed that if they did so they would cut the name of their destination on the trunks of the trees where it would be plainly in sight. It was understood also that, if any disaster befell them, they would carve the figure of a cross

From the Original Drawing by Allen B. Doggett

THE LOST COLONY OF ROANOKE ISLAND

under the letters. No such emblem appeared, and he took hope from the fact, though the strange absence of the colonists filled him with the dread that some calamity had overtaken them. It seemed to him that the letters were meant to tell them that their friends had removed to Croatan Island instead of to the mainland.

Misgivings as to the fate of the Colonists

Penetrating further, they came to the abandoned post, still inclosed by palisades. There they found the full name CROATAN cut on the trees, and as yet without the figure of the cross. The relief that this fact might have afforded was effaced by other signs. The log-dwellings were in ruins, pieces of metal were scattered around, and a number of buried trunks had been dug up and their contents flung about. Among them White recognized several belonging to himself.

These discoveries convinced him that all the colonists had perished; but it seems strange that he did not continue his search for them. It is not impossible that they were within a few miles at that very moment; but a storm set in, his provisions ran short, and it was too dangerous to attempt to bring off the water casks that had been sent ashore. The sailors were impatient, and demanded that they should leave the spot, which seemed to them to be accursed. The Governor complied with their wishes, and sailing for the West Indies, he never again set foot in America.

The Lost Colony, 1590

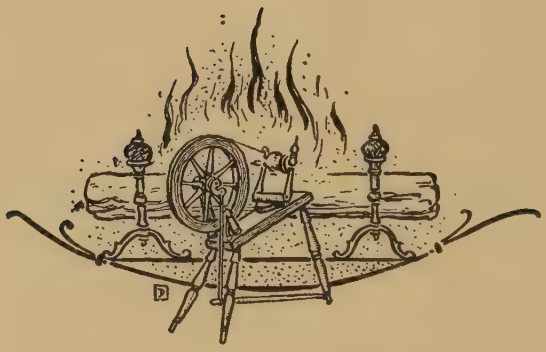
What was the fate of the Lost Colony? This is one of the most interesting questions connected with the early exploration of our country, and it has never been satisfactorily answered. Twenty years later, when Jamestown had been settled, it was said that many members of the colony were still alive; while at a later date it was asserted that some of them had been seen and spoken to. This assertion was never verified, and probably was untrue.

Probable Absorption of the Lost Colony in the Indian Tribes

There is a ground, however, for another claim which has significance. When, long years after, the region was settled by Europeans, they saw numerous members of the Hatteras Indians who showed unmistakable traces of white blood. They had, in some instances, light hair and eyes, peculiarities never seen in true members of the native American race. At the same time, there was a tradition extant among those people, that when the Lost Colony was deserted by their friends, they were adopted by the red men, who had always been friendly to them. They became absorbed in the tribe, and, as the years passed, gradually lost their identity, and

finally disappeared as completely as if all had been massacred during the absence of Governor White in Europe, towards the close of the sixteenth century.

This last failure exhausted the resources of Sir Walter Raleigh. He had spent nearly a quarter of a million of dollars in his attempts at colonization. He assigned a large part of his rights to a number of merchants, who kept up for a while a petty trade with the Indians in Virginia, but made no serious attempt at settlement.



PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT

CHAPTER VIII

THE FIRST PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA

[*Authorities*: The general histories, in their earlier chapters, of Bancroft, Hildreth, Bryant and Gay, and Ridpath, should be consulted, with the third volume of Justin Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," dealing with English discovery and settlement in America. The interested student of the native annals should not omit the English works that throw light on the era, such as Gardiner's "First Two Stuarts" (Epochs of Modern History), and Payne's "European Colonies." See, also, Neil's and Lodge's "English Colonies in America." For an account of the early French settlement in Acadia, and the founding of the French Colony on the St. Lawrence by Champlain, the chief authorities are Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World," and "The Jesuits in North America;" Kingford's "History of Canada," Vols. I and II; and the contemporaneous annals of Charlevoix, "History of New France" (O'Shea's translation), "Champlain's Voyages," edited by Laverdière and Casgrain (Quebec: 1870), and the *Relations des Jesuites.*]

A HUNDRED years had rolled by since the discovery of America by Columbus, during which the Spanish, French, and English explorers penetrated the northern and southern portions of the continent, with the scant result, however, that when the sixteenth century drew to a close, and the dawn of the seventeenth came, the only permanent settlement anywhere was the feeble colony which the Spanish, in 1565, had planted at St. Augustine, Florida.

But the French and English were at work, and though failure did not cease to dog the steps of the colonists, the hour of success drew nigh. Raleigh had used most of his resources, as has been

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

stated, in the vain effort to colonize the country, but, while he lived, his interest was still keen in the New World. Learning from Bartholomew Gosnold, who had visited America, that the Earl of Southampton had offered to fit out a vessel if he would command it, Raleigh urged him to do so, and Gosnold consented.

Gosnold's Expedition, 1602

This expedition sailed from Falmouth, in April, 1602, with thirty persons, twenty of whom were designed as material in founding a colony. The voyage across the Atlantic possessed one remarkable feature: it was the first made over the more northern track taken by ocean steamers between England and America. As a consequence, in a little more than a month after sailing, Gosnold sighted the Massachusetts coast (naming it Cape Cod, because of the abundance of codfish seen there), the Elizabeth Islands, and Martha's Vineyard (originally Martin's Vineyard). On one of the Elizabeth Islands in Buzzard's Bay, tradition credits Gosnold with having landed, and begun the construction of a fort. The name of this island which he selected for the colony is the Indian one of Cuttyhunk.

Now, there was no good reason why Gosnold should not have had the honor of planting the first English settlement in America, for everything favored such an enterprise. The soil was good, and nature very bountiful; raspberries, strawberries, grapes, and other small fruits grew in profusion; and the climate was less severe than in Canada. But the settlers looked out on the sea and remembered that three thousand miles of tempestuous waters rolled between them and England; that the Indians seemed to be hostile; that their own supply of provisions was scant, and the future source uncertain. These and other forebodings filled the would-be colonists with homesickness, so that, when Gosnold sailed for home he took with him all the people that he had brought away.

But the pleasing story told by Gosnold and his friends deepened the interest of England in colonization, and two ships were fitted out to visit and plant a settlement in the same region. They were under the command of Martin Pring, and, sailing from Milford Haven in the spring of 1603, entered Penobscot Bay in the following June. They explored the shore-front of Maine to the southward, and visited the spot where Gosnold had landed. Six months later, the voyagers returned to England, and confirmed the favorable accounts of their predecessors.

Pring's Expedition, 1603

As a result, other expeditions followed and visited the same sec-

tion, trading with the Indians, and now and then kidnapping some of them. The war with France having ended for the time, James I. of England warmly supported a plan for colonizing America on an extensive scale. He saw the prospect not only of gain for his subjects, but a safe field of adventure and enterprise for his idle soldiers.

And so it came about that on April 20, 1606, he issued letters-patent to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hakluyt,* Edward Maria Wingfield, Captain Gosnold, and others, by which they were given all the land on the American coast between latitudes 34° and 45° north, and including all the lands situated within a hundred miles of the shore.

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

These patents or grants called for the formation of two companies, the northern and southern. The directors of the southern company lived in London, and their enterprise was therefore known by that name, while those of the northern company resided in Plymouth, and that organization became the Plymouth Company. The grant of the London Company embraced all the coast from 34° to 38°, or from Cape Fear to the Rappahannock River, which domain was known as South Virginia. The territory of the Plymouth Company called North Virginia, extended from 41° to 45°, or from near the mouth of the Hudson to the eastern point of Maine.

The London and Plymouth Companies

Now that England had taken the important step that was to give her the strongest of all footholds in America, we must not overlook the work done by her great rival, France. Samuel de Champlain (*sham'playn'*), of the French navy, was commissioned by his King (Henry IV.) Lieutenant-General of Canada, for which country he sailed, March 15, 1603, accompanied by Pontgravé, who was interested in the fur-trade. Ascending the St. Lawrence in May, they anchored at Tadousac, at the mouth of the Saguenay, whence they proceeded in a smaller boat past the great red rock, now crowned by

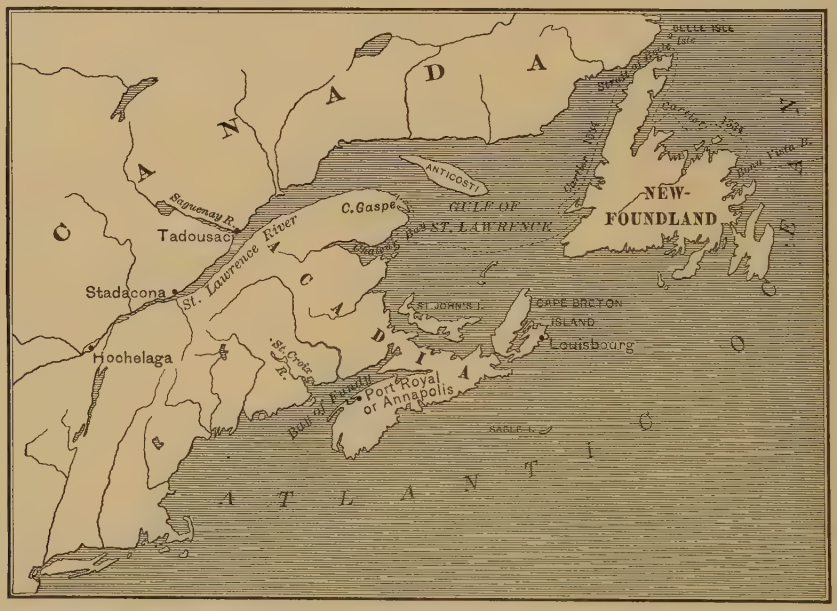
Champlain becomes Lieutenant-General of Canada, 1603

*Hakluyt (*hak'-loot*) was a clergyman, and notable in his day as the compiler of a collection of voyages and records of the discoveries of English navigators. He died in 1616 and was buried in Westminster Abbey, London. The Hakluyt Society, founded in 1846, perpetuates his name and work, in preserving the records of geographical discovery, and in issuing well-edited reprints of the work of early navigators.

the citadel of Quebec, thence onward to the rapids, near the present city of Montreal. Champlain returned home in the autumn, and published an account of his voyage, which attracted much attention.

When Champlain reached France, he found that the King had made a leading Huguenot, the Sieur de Monts (*mon*), viceroy over six degrees of latitude in America, extending from the St. Lawrence southward to the latitude of Cape May. The region was named Acadia, and De Monts sailed thither with four vessels in March, 1604, Champlain acting as his pilot. Accompanying the expedition

De Monts Colony on the Bay of Fundy



ACADIA AND THE WATER-HIGHWAY TO CANADA

were a number of artisans and laborers, together with the celebrated early French historian, Marc Lescarbot,* and the Baron Poutrincourt. The expedition did not steer for the St. Lawrence, but for the Acadian (Nova Scotia) peninsula, as De Monts decided to make his settlement farther to the southward. Accordingly, the emigrants entered the Bay of Fundy, and anchored in a harbor on the northern shore of the peninsula. There a settlement was begun to which the

*Lescarbot (*la-kar-bo'*) is chiefly known by his "*Histoire de Nouvelle France*," published in France in 1609, which gives an account not only of the French colony in Acadia, but also of Cartier's voyages to Canada, and of Laudonniere's expedition to Florida.

name of Port Royal was given. It was afterwards known as Annapolis, Nova Scotia, so-called in honor of Queen Anne. De Monts and the main body of the emigrants passed the winter on an island in the St. Croix River, present boundary between Maine and New Brunswick. The weather was so severe that half of them perished before spring, when the survivors made their way to Port Royal and joined the colony there, which had meanwhile been recruited from France by another batch of colonists, under Pontgravé.

French settlement in the Bay of Fundy survived for a number of years, but it was sorely crippled by dissensions between rival governors and harassed by the aggressive English colonists on the New England coast. In 1613, Captain Samuel Argall, an English freebooter, plundered the French settlements in Acadia and burned Port Royal, on the plea that they were intrusions upon the domain of the North and South Virginia Company.

De Monts had no wish to contest the matter with that powerful corporation, and, in the summer of 1608, obtaining a new charter, he proceeded with Champlain, who was now to become the real founder of Canada, to his old winter quarters at Tadousac, at the mouth of the Saguenay. There Champlain left De Monts and planted a colony on the St. Lawrence, on the site of the present city of Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America. In the following summer, Champlain penetrated the Indian country and discovered the beautiful lake which bears his name. The settlements thus begun took root, and, with varying fortunes, waned and flourished for a period of one hundred and fifty years, until the conquest, in 1759, when they passed under the flag of Britain. The French from the first secured the friendship of their Indian neighbors of the Algonquin or Huron tribe, in which they were aided by the Jesuit missionaries, who were far-seeing, long-suffering, and devoted to their self-appointed task. That tribal alliance, however, cost the colony dear, since it provoked the ire of the Iroquois confederacy, which became a constant menace to the French.*

Founding of Quebec, 1608

*Champlain, while on a visit, in 1615, to the Huron country, on the Georgian Bay, was induced by the Hurons to take part with them in an attack on the Iroquois, in the Mohawk Valley, New York State. This was fraught with lamentable consequences to the French Colony on the St. Lawrence, as well as to the Huron nation, which, in 1648-49, was almost entirely wiped out of existence by the demoniac fury of the Iroquois. For an account of the latter, see Parkman's narrative, also the article, by G. Mercer Adam, on "The Georgian Bay and the Muskoka Lakes," in *Picturesque Canada*.

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

We have now reached a period when we must tell about the first lasting English colony in America. The domain of the Plymouth, or North Virginia, Company lay between the forty-first and forty-fifth degrees, and that of the London, or South Virginia, Company between the thirty-fourth and thirty-eighth degrees of north latitude. This left three degrees between North and South Virginia, and neither party was allowed to settle within one hundred miles of the other in the intervening space.

JAMES I.

King James reserved to himself the right to name a resident council for the several colonies, each of which selected its own presiding officer. They could fill any vacancies that occurred, but no clergyman was allowed to act as president. The laws made by this council were subject to revision or change by the King and council in England. It was provided that for five years all property should be held in common, and the established religion in the colony was to be that of the Church of England.

In May, 1606, the Plymouth Company sent out a ship which explored a part of the coast of Maine and took back a favorable report. Another followed in August, but was captured by the Spaniards. The Plymouth Company included some of the most famous names in England. Among them were Sir John Popham, Lord Chief Justice, who condemned Sir Walter Raleigh to death, his brother George, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges (*Gor'jez*). In the early summer of 1607, a hundred emigrants, under Governor George Popham, sailed for America. They landed on a desolate spot, near the mouth of the Kennebec, where they erected a few log huts and a rude fort. It was too late to plant any crops, and the Indians were so sullen that all the emigrants except a contingent of forty-five, sailed away in the ships that had brought them over.

The Popham Colony, 1607

The winter which followed was one of the severest for a region at the time noted for its semi-arctic climate. The streams were frozen almost solid, and shut out all possibility of fishing, while the snow lay in such enormous drifts in the forests that no one could engage in hunting. Little was visible of their cabins save the tops of the chimneys from which the thin smoke curled upward among the leaf-

less trees. In the depth of the terrible winter, the storehouse in which they had placed their scant provisions caught fire, and was burned to ashes, with most of their supplies. The privations brought on disease and the death of a number, among whom was the Chief Justice's brother, Governor Popham.

When it looked as if all must perish, a ship arrived with provisions, and the news that Chief Justice Popham and another principal leader of the enterprise were dead. The tidings, and their own intolerable

THE POPHAM COLONISTS

hardships, so discouraged the emigrants, that they bade good-by to the dismal solitudes and returned to England with the ship. They took with them so disheartening an account of the country and their experience there that for a long time no further attempt was made to plant an English colony in the region. All that the Plymouth Company did was to fish in the waters along the shore, and keep up a fitful trade with the natives.

The Expedition sent out by the London Company, 1606

In December, 1606, the London Company sent out three vessels from Blackwall, England. They were the *Susan Constant*, of one hundred tons, the *God-Speed*, of forty, and the *Discovery*, a pinnace of twenty tons. The emigrants numbered one hundred and five men,

Period II — Colonization and Settlement 1602 to 1758 —

and were unaccompanied by women. Captain Christopher Newport had command of the vessels, and his orders were to land on Roanoke Island, the site of the Lost Colony which disappeared twenty years before. The season was cold and tempestuous, and the men who composed this famous company had a no less stormy time of it among themselves. A large number of them were adventurers, whose last thought was that of honest labor. Probably less than thirty were mechanics, who were ambitious to make a home for themselves in the New World. But among the colonists was one of the most remarkable men of those who figure in the history of our country. He was an individual who, to-day, has not hundreds merely, but thousands of namesakes, throughout the United States. Who among us has not heard the name of John Smith?

Captain John Smith

Happy would the historian be to-day if he knew the whole truth about this particular John Smith, for the facts of his career would make an interesting story indeed. If half the adventures he told about himself were true, he had one of the most extraordinary experiences that ever befell an adventurer. There is little doubt that Smith was a great braggart and loved to relate his exploits, some of which, it is to be feared, have slight foundation in fact. Nevertheless, he was brave, honest, full of enterprise, and had more brains than any other man connected with the expedition sent to South Virginia; and, though many of the people hated him, the time quickly came when all saw his worth and were glad to lean upon him. But for John Smith, the first permanent English settlement in America would not have been made when and where it was.

Smith's European Adventures

Smith at that time was under thirty years of age, but, young as he was, he had become famous on account of his wonderful adventures. He was such a wild, headstrong youth, that his English friends gave him a small sum of money to get rid of him. Quite ready to leave England, he went to France as the servant of a nobleman, who soon, however, turned him adrift. Meanwhile, he had grown to be a big, sturdy lad, and, enlisting in the army engaged in the wars in the Low Countries, he proved himself a valiant soldier, and came back to England when nineteen years old. His next act was to build himself a cabin in the heart of a forest, where he studied military tactics, and in the open glades of the forest became an expert horseman.

One day he dashed away on his steed and enlisted in the Christian army which was engaged in a desperate war with the Turks,

who were striving to force their way into Hungary. At Marseilles (*mar-salz'*) Smith embarked for Italy in a ship filled with Roman Catholic pilgrims. By and by a fierce storm arose, and the pilgrims, believing that it was an expression of God's anger because they were voyaging with a heretic, caught up Smith and flung him overboard. He was a powerful swimmer, and breasted his way over the mountainous billows to an island, from which he was taken in a French vessel to Alexandria.

Soon afterwards he joined the German army which was fighting the Turks in Transylvania, and quickly won renown among a host of fighters. While besieging a city, the most famous warrior of the Mussulmans, desirous of entertaining the ladies, challenged the Christian army to produce a man that dared to meet him in single combat. Smith put forward his claim, and was granted the honor of appearing as champion of his people. In the presence of an immense multitude the combat took place on horseback, each man being clad in mail, and using the lances of the knights of the olden time.

Smith's reputed Prowess

The combatants met in furious onslaught, and both showed consummate skill and courage, but the prowess of the Christian prevailed, the Turk was unhorsed and slain, and his head carried into the Christian camp. Two other Turks, burning to avenge the death of their leader, entered the lists against Smith, and he killed them both. It was the fate of war, however, that soon after this great fight Smith should be taken prisoner by the Turks. He was sold to a pasha, or ruler, who sent him to Constantinople as a slave for his mistress, whom he was anxious to marry. She became interested in the adventures of the handsome young Christian, and, in the hope of securing his release, sent him to her brother in the Crimea. But that relative, instead of sharing her tender sympathy, treated the captive with great cruelty. He placed an iron collar around his neck, and made him toil daily like a slave.

Slays his Master and Escapes

One day, when Smith was threshing wheat, with his master sitting near and berating him, he turned suddenly upon the Turk and "threshed him to death with the flail." Hastily donning the clothes of his late master, he leaped on his horse and fled from the place. He was pursued, but, with the start gained, and the fleetness of his steed, he escaped from the country, and, after many other stirring adventures, found his way back to England in 1604. There the

prospect of further adventure led him to join the expedition of the English colonists to South Virginia.

Smith was so much the superior of every one of his companions, and was so outspoken and brusque in manner, that he was heartily disliked by his jealous fellow-adventurers. An absurd charge was made against him, to the effect that he was plotting to murder the members of the council and make himself king of Virginia. He was held a prisoner under this accusation, for which, it would seem, there was in truth but little foundation.

While sailing northward along the American coast in quest of Roanoke Island, the ships were caught in a furious storm, which drove them into Chesapeake Bay, the headlands of which they named Cape Henry and Cape Charles, in honor of the then Prince of Wales and his brother. The King had forbidden the opening of the box containing the sealed instructions until they sighted land, and the pioneers now learned for the first time the names of the men who were to compose the resident council. They were: Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliffe, John Martin, and George Kendall. The other six were indignant at the selection of Smith, and several asserted that they would not sit with him; but cooler counsels prevailed.

Driven into Chesapeake Bay

The wearied voyagers crossed the wide mouth of the Chesapeake, and landed at a point which was so pleasing in its wealth of fragrant flowers, its soft breezes, and soothing quiet, that they named it Point Comfort. Then, after resting a day or two, they sailed up a broad placid river which, in honor of their King, they called the James. At a point about forty miles from the mouth they chose a place on an island, or peninsula, and, going ashore, began the settlement of Jamestown, May 13, 1607. This became the first permanent English colony planted in America.

Founding of Jamestown, May 13, 1607

The government was organized by the selection of Wingfield as President of the council. He was bitterly envious of Smith, and not having withdrawn his charges, and wishing to be rid of him, he proposed that he could save himself by returning to England with Newport. Smith, however, rejected the proposition, and after a time was permitted to take his seat at the council-board.

CHAPTER IX

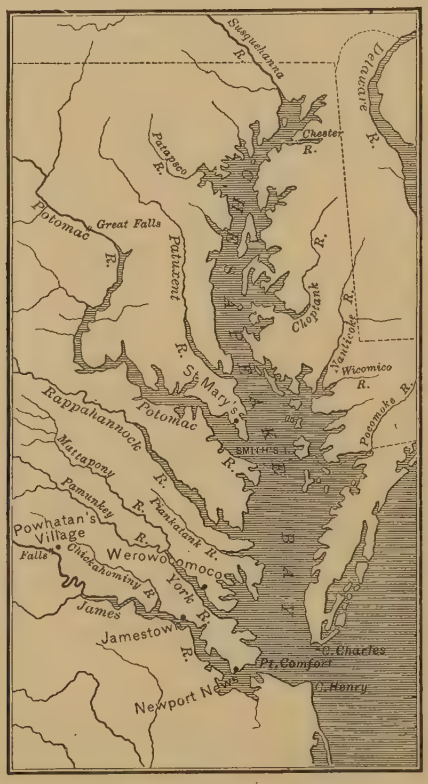
THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF VIRGINIA

[*Authorities*: The interesting and thrilling story of settlement in the ancient colony of Virginia may partly be read in early contemporary annals, such as Purchas's "His Pilgrimage," and Smith's "True Relation and Generall Historie," and partly in the modern biographies of Captain John Smith, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Nathaniel Bacon; in the story of Rolfe and Pocahontas; as well as in the recent monographs in the "American Commonwealth Series:" Cooke's "Virginia," and Browne's "Maryland." See, also, Drake's "The Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies," together with Lodge's "English Colonies in America," and the general histories of the United States.]

IT was the general belief in Europe, at the time of the founding of Jamestown, that the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, lay only a comparatively short distance to the westward, and that if any of the large streams flowing into the Atlantic were ascended, they would be found to connect with the greater ocean. This was a curious belief, since there are few rivers in the world with two widely separated outlets. South America has one such stream—the Rio Negro—but there is none in North America.

The pioneers at Jamestown had been ordered to look into the matter, so while most of them were felling trees and putting up cabins, Captain Newport, John Smith, and some twenty others ascended the river in boats, to make what might be called a preliminary investigation. They had heard of a great chief, Powhatan (*Pow-ha-tan'*) who lived near the spot where Richmond now stands, and there the white men paid him a visit. His lodge, or "palace," was an imposing one, being much larger than is generally seen among the Indians, with an abundance of boughs, bark, skins, and saplings. A number of modest lodges surrounding the kingly residence were occupied by

The Indian Chief Powhatan, of Virginia



POWHATAN'S COUNTRY

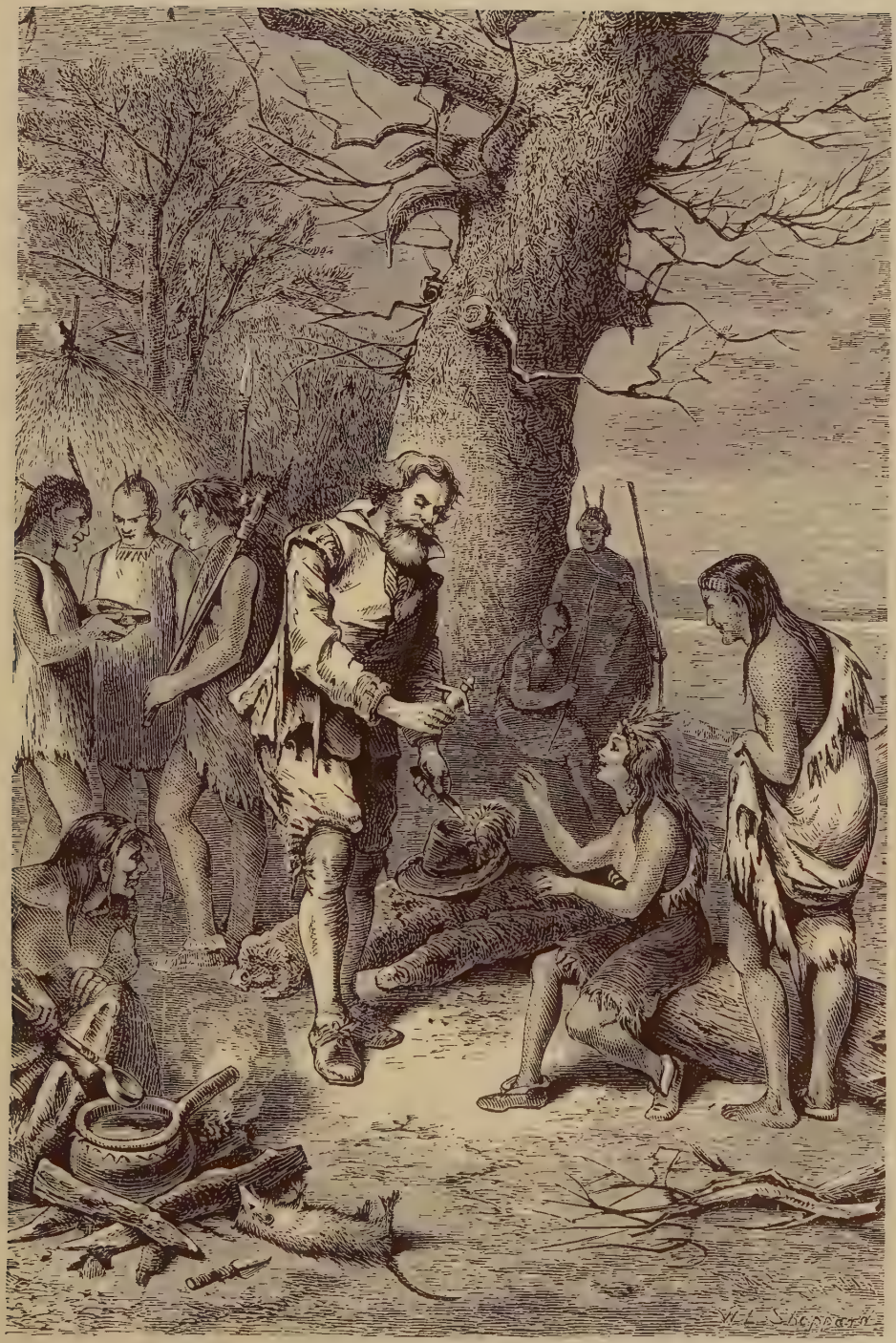
the chief advisers of the dusky monarch, and luxuriant fields of Indian corn were growing near.

Powhatan received his visitors kindly, but some of the chiefs looked with disfavor on the intrusion of the white men. This inland voyage of the little party extended for one hundred and fifty miles, and several other tribes were visited. Many gaudy trinkets were distributed, while the delighted Indians in turn gave their visitors corn, game, and small fruits. On the voyage down the James, the observant Englishmen were disquieted to observe that the red men were scowling and unfriendly. The explanation of this was found when the explorers reached Jamestown.

Trouble with Indians Begins

President Wingfield had managed matters badly during the several weeks that Newport and his companions were absent. He was so envious of Smith that he stopped the work on the little fort which the latter had recommended should be built, Smith's purpose being as much to keep the men occupied, as to secure a defense against enemies. The settlers had become embroiled with the Indians, who attacked them, killing a boy and wounding several men. This caused all haste to be made in completing the fort, while sentinels were kept actively on duty day and night.

Captain Newport returned to England, June 21, 1607, for more immigrants and supplies. He left a pinnace for the use of the settlers, whose situation at this time was anything but cheering. The provisions were nearly gone, and the Indians had become so hostile that it was almost impossible to procure food from them. The majority of immigrants did not know how to cultivate the soil, and those who did were too lazy to work. The summer heat was over-



JOHN SMITH A CAPTIVE AMONG THE INDIANS

powering, the water unwholesome, and a noxious exhalation rose from the surrounding swamps, which caused so much sickness that, two weeks after the departure of Captain Newport, there was hardly a well person in the colony.

In the midst of these sufferings it was discovered that President Wingfield had kept back delicacies from the sick and was himself living upon them. The anger against him was so intense that he was deposed, and John Ratcliffe elected in his place. This man was as great a hypocrite as Wingfield, and totally lacking in force of character. He was soon glad to resign, and all turned to Smith, who had kept his sturdy health, and shown the energy of half a dozen men. He was chosen President, and from that time forward, so long as he remained in the colony, he was its leading spirit.

Smith's Capable Administration Saves the Colony

Captain John Smith proved himself to be a ruler who ruled. Had he not been such, the entire body of settlers probably would have perished. He governed with a rod of iron. He declared that no well man should have a mouthful of food until he earned it by work. He stopped the wrangling, was himself cheerful and hopeful, toiled as hard as any, was honest and unselfish, gave his whole energy for the well-being of the sufferers, and frightened the Indians into bringing in food. In time, the weather became cool, the general health improved, and the settlers were able to shoot plenty of game in the woods. Thus the selection of Captain John Smith as President of the council proved the salvation of the colony.

Smith now decided to make another exploration of the surrounding country. Winter was nigh at hand, and he set out to ascend the Chickahominy in a single boat, with five or six companions. When the water became too shallow to use the craft, he left it in charge of two men, instructing them to keep away from shore. They hardly waited until Smith was out of sight when they landed and began hunting. Prowling Indians killed one, and the other barely escaped with his life.

Capture of Smith by the Indians

Meanwhile, Smith himself got into a somewhat serious scrape. He took with him two white men and two Indians to serve as guides, and ascended twenty miles further in a canoe. The water became so shallow that, with one of the warriors as his companion, he plunged into the tangled woods and ardently engaged in a hunt for game. Unsuspected by Smith, a large party of Indians had been watching, and stealthily followed him, and before he knew of his

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

Smith's Presence of Mind

danger the surrounding forest was alive with enemies. They had killed the two men left in charge of the canoe, and sent their arrows whizzing after the valiant Englishman, who, however, had been in too many perilous situations to lose his presence of mind. Walking slowly backward, he loaded and discharged his old firelock

as rapidly as he could, and brought down a couple of his assailants. Although slightly wounded, he was in the act of reloading, when he sank to his knees in a spongy bog, and, before he could extricate himself, the Indians rushed forward and made him prisoner.

Smith understood the superstitious nature of the red man and was shrewd enough to appeal to it. He made the most of his little pocket compass, with its tiny darting needle, and indulged in mysterious gestures, which so impressed the simple-minded folk that, instead of putting him to death on the spot, they exhibited him in several villages, and finally took him before the great war-chief, Powhatan, for his disposal.

While awaiting his fate, Smith was allowed to send a letter by a couple of messengers to Jamestown. This act so impressed the red men, when they were made to see that the letter "spoke" to the settlers, that they were filled with greater awe than before.

Despite the tact shown by Smith, the council summoned by Powhatan decided that the prisoner must die. Two big stones were placed in front of the chieftain, and Smith, with his hands tied behind him, was brought forward, and laid on his back, with his head resting on the stones. Two brawny warriors advanced, each with a huge club, and were about to dash out his brains, when Pocahontas (*po-ka-hon'tas*), the beautiful young daughter of Powhatan, rushed from beside her father, and kneeling with her arms about the Captain's neck, begged the chief to spare his life. Powhatan, who devotedly loved his child, was so touched by her appeal, that he not only spared Smith, but sent him to Jamestown in charge of an escort.

Smith Saved by Pocahontas

The story of John Smith and Pocahontas is one of the most pleasing and romantic in the early history of our country, and no account of the colony of Virginia would be complete without it. Since Smith did not make the episode known until years afterwards, when his dusky friend was dead—and even then it was doubted on account of his fondness for bragging—many believe that the interesting adventure never occurred, but it must have had some foundation in fact. In any case, it will do no harm to give the doughty fellow credit for the stirring experience.

Smith had been absent for about six weeks from Jamestown, and when he returned found matters in a sad condition. The little church had been burned, and the devoted minister held services

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under the shelter of the trees. Only forty persons were left alive, and the most robust members were about to abandon the settlement and flee in the pinnace. The cheeriness of Smith, his energy and his tact, caused the design to be abandoned, so that again, it may be said, he saved the colony from ruin.

Nothing short of stern, unflinching, rigorous rule was sufficient to avert destruction. This aroused so much hatred among the malcontents that they charged Smith with murder, because of the death of his companions on the Chickahominy, and, incredible as it may seem, would have put him to death, had not Captain Newport at this critical juncture arrived from England. This was early in 1608, and though the immigrants which he brought were of no better character than those that preceded them, his arrival was the occasion of much joy. Of the one hundred and twenty men with him, there were not a half-dozen who were of assistance in reviving the colony. They were chiefly adventurers and "gentlemen," who had the tramp's hor-

CAPTURE OF JOHN SMITH BY THE INDIANS

Smith Falsely Charged with Murder

ror of work, yet were eaten up with a frenzy for gold. They persuaded Captain Newport to load his vessel with worthless yellow earth (pyrites), under the belief that it was the long sought precious ore, and that all who had a share in its gathering would be millionaires for the remainder of their days. Deep was their chagrin when it was tested by mineral experts in London.

Arrival of Captain Newport, 1608

The second vessel of Captain Newport was delayed so long in the West Indies by bad weather that it did not reach Jamestown until the following spring. When it returned to England, some time later, it carried a noteworthy cargo, consisting of a valuable shipment of cedar, while among the passengers were the malignant enemies of John Smith, and from that time forward he ruled without opposition.

Smith sailed up many of the streams flowing into Chesapeake Bay, and made a map of the explored region, which is an excellent one, and is still preserved in London. The captain, however, lost patience when Newport came again with seventy immigrants as worthless as those that had come before. Furthermore, the London Council ordered Smith to send back ten thousand dollars' worth of commodities; a lump of gold, the product of Virginia; to find a passage to the South Sea; and to learn all about the lost colony of Roanoke. Smith's reply to these absurd instructions was that all the settlers would starve to death, but for the aid of the Indians; that the immigrants sent over were not only good for nothing, but a burden upon the community. "I entreat you rather," Smith wrote to the Council, "to send but thirty carpenters, husbandmen, gardeners, fishermen, blacksmiths, masons, and diggers of trees' roots, well provided, rather than a thousand such as we have."

A new Charter Granted, May 23, 1609

The Council in London saw that a change was necessary in the management of the Virginia colony, which from the first had been a continual expense. The interest of some of the foremost men in England was enlisted, and King James granted them a new charter, May 23, 1609. The grant included all the land two hundred miles north and south of Point Comfort, and all the islands within a hundred miles of the coast, with the Pacific Ocean as the western boundary.

Among the duties of the Council in London was the naming of the rulers in Virginia. The malcontents, whom Smith had treated so severely, were on the other side of the Atlantic, and they made their influence felt to the extent of selecting a new President, in the

From the Original Drawing by Joseph Lauber

POCAHONTAS SAVING THE LIFE OF JOHN SMITH

person of Lord De la Warr,* who, fortunately, was worthy of the responsible trust.

The new company fitted out nine ships, with five hundred immigrants, and an abundance of stores. They sailed for Virginia in June, 1609, under command of Captain Newport. Lord De la Warr was not ready to go with the fleet, and Sir Thomas Gates, his deputy, Sir George Somers, Admiral of Virginia, and Captain Newport, were commissioned to administer the government until the arrival of Lord De la Warr. Unfortunately, the question of precedence among the three commissioners was not fixed, so Somers and Gates agreed to sail in the ship with Newport, and leave the matter to be settled afterwards.

Scamps and Vagrants as Colonists

The *Sea-Venture*, as she was called, was caught in a hurricane, separated from the rest of the fleet, and wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands. A second vessel went down; but the other seven reached Jamestown, with a large number of domestic fowls, goats, sheep, swine, and horses, and the worst set of vagrants with which poor Virginia was ever afflicted. Many of the young men had been so vicious at home that, as a last hope, their friends shipped them to America, where it was thought they might be compelled to be good. Others had run away from England to escape punishment for their misdemeanors, while a large number were dissolute gentlemen or broken-down tradesmen.

Never were the fine character and personal bearing of John Smith manifested more strikingly than at this trying crisis, when, had he been lacking in courage and resource, the colony would have been engulfed in ruin. Since the three men appointed to govern Jamestown did not put in an appearance, the "gentlemen" proceeded to select their own officers, whereupon Smith informed them that he considered it his duty to maintain his own rule until the arrival of the regularly appointed council, regardless of their views.

Smith Preserves Discipline

Not only did Smith succeed in this, but he held the vicious in check by continually devising new explorations, and finding something at all times for them to do. Thus he preserved fair discipline and order, which no one else could have done, until autumn, when

*Thomas Sackville-West, Lord De la Warr, second Governor of Virginia, died at sea in 1618, on his way out to the colony. In his earliest visits to Virginia, he is said to have explored the estuary and river which bear his name—the Delaware, since also applied to the State of Delaware.

he was so seriously injured by an accidental explosion of gunpowder, that he was forced to go to England for surgical treatment. It was a misfortune for Virginia that he never returned. George Percy was left as governor-in-charge. He was a man of good character, but so lacking in firmness that he proved a failure.

Smith Departs, Colony Demoralized

The winter which followed was the most calamitous in the history of the colony. The men indulged in every excess, ate up the remaining provisions, and treated the Indians so brutally that they became bitterly hostile. They formed a plot for massacring every one of the white men, and would have done so had not Pocahontas hurried to Jamestown, through storm and darkness, with a warning to Percy, whose preparations against attack prevented it being made. Saved from a violent death, they, however, fell a prey to disease and famine which fastened their fatal grip upon the wretched settlers, and they died by the score. They even resorted to cannibalism, and the dead far outnumbered the living. Of the five hundred whom Smith left behind, only sixty were alive at the end of six months. This fearful era in the early history of Virginia is known as "the Starving Time."

The Starving Time, 1609-10

Meanwhile, the commissioners and their fellow-voyagers, who had been wrecked in the Bermudas, contrived to build two small vessels, in which they embarked for Virginia, where they arrived on the 23d of May, 1610. Governor Gates, who, it was agreed, should assume charge of affairs, was so shocked at the sights which met his gaze in Jamestown that he believed the only way of saving the miserable beings that remained was to abandon the settlement and take them to the English fishing-stations of Newfoundland. He, therefore, distributed them among the four pinnaces in the river, together with a scanty supply of provisions. Then, with sad hearts, they turned their backs, as they believed forever, upon Jamestown, the scene of so much suffering and sorrow, praying only that they might live long enough to reach some spot where friends would minister to their wants.

But once more Providence interposed, and saved the settlement from ruin. At the mouth of the James, the colonists saw ships approaching, and to their great joy discovered that they belonged to Lord De la Warr. The vessels, three in number, contained a goodly contingent of sturdy immigrants, together with an abundance of provisions and other needful supplies. De la Warr

Arrival of Lord De la Warr

himself was on board, and he showed himself to be one of the best and wisest rulers that colonial Virginia ever had. Gladly all turned about and made their way back to Jamestown, where they gathered in the new unfinished church and joined in thanking God for His great mercy. As their songs of praise rang through the forest arches, a number of Indians were seen peeping from behind the trees, and listening and looking with wonder upon the strange scene.

A Time of Thanksgiving

SMITH TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

Lord De la Warr commanded the respect and confidence of all by his admirable though brief administration; but his health failed, and he was compelled to sail for England in the spring of 1611. Percy once more assumed the reins of government; but Sir Thomas Dale, arriving soon after with supplies, became Governor, and ruled wisely and well. More immigrants, and now of an excellent class, were sent over, and for the first time, Virginia took on an air of prosperity. When Gates assumed the governorship, Dale ascended the James River and planted settlements where Richmond now stands, and at the mouth of the Appomattox River. These offshoots flourished, and Gates and Dale wrought in harmony, while the colonists showed enterprise, industry, and an appreciation of their advantages.

A Third Charter Granted, 1611-1612

A third charter was now granted to the Company, which permitted its powers to be divided in an equitable manner among all the members. An important feature of this charter allowed every man to

From the Original Drawing by Joseph Lauber

MARRIAGE OF POCAHONTAS

cultivate three acres of the soil for his personal use. Until then the land had been tilled in common, so that the lazy lived upon the industrious. Now the real prosperity of the colony began.

Tobacco, a product of the new world, had been introduced into England some years before, and it became so popular that nearly everybody in Jamestown turned his attention to its cultivation. The prices realized in the English market upon the product were so good that an ample profit was afforded, and the tilling of corn and the other cereals was, in consequence, neglected. Even the streets of Jamestown were piled up with the big green leaves, and the council was obliged to restrict its cultivation.

Pocahontas Made a Captive

In a previous chapter, it will be recalled, mention was made of Captain Argall, the freebooter, who burned the French settlements in Acadia. Previous to undertaking that lawless expedition, he went on a cruise up the James River. He invited Pocahontas on board his vessel, when, in accordance with the Spanish rule, he made her a prisoner and took her to Jamestown. He expected her father to ransom her with a large quantity of corn; but the furious Powhatan refused to treat with the pirate, and prepared to go to war.

During these stormy weeks, when so grave a danger hung over Jamestown, John Rolfe, who belonged to a good English family, fell in love with Pocahontas, and she reciprocated his affection. She was a pagan, and he a Christian, but their love for each other was none the less tender and true. He strove to explain, as far as he could, the mysteries of his faith to her, and she was an apt pupil. She accepted the Christian religion and asked to be baptized.

In the quaint little chapel of Jamestown, whose columns were shaggy pine trunks from the forest, whose pews were of fragrant cedar, and whose pulpit and communion-table were of black walnut, the dusky maiden knelt before the font "hewn hollow between like a canoe," and, uttering the responses in broken English, was baptized and given the name of Rebecca.

Marriage of Pocahontas, April, 1613

The marriage of Rolfe and Pocahontas took place in April, 1613. Powhatan readily consented to the alliance, and sent his brother to give away his daughter, in accordance with the Anglican ritual. It was a memorable day, as may be supposed, in the annals of Jamestown, with a touching beauty all its own. The windows were hung with festoons of evergreens, amid which gleamed sweet wild flowers and crimson holly berries. A cloth of spotless white linen covered

The Wedding Feast

the communion-table, and on it stood bread from the wheat-fields and wine from the native grapes.

It may be doubted whether a single adult in Jamestown was absent from the ceremony. Sir Thomas Gates beamed with happiness, while the dusky countenances of the brothers of Pocahontas, and of other youths and maidens of the forest, glowed with sympathetic and abounding pleasure.

When the bride and groom slowly entered the church, she was seen to be dressed in a simple tunic of white muslin, and her shapely arms were bare to the shoulder. Her rich robe, which she herself had embroidered, was a present from Sir Thomas Dale. Her stately head, with its wealth of raven hair, was encircled by a fillet, filled with the brilliant plumage of birds, and holding in its fastenings a fleecy veil; while her wrists and ankles were girdled with a few simple articles of jewelry. Pocahontas was very beautiful, but showed a becoming modesty and simplicity throughout the impressive and touching ceremony.

The Wedding Ceremony

Naturally, the bride was the most interesting personage in the church, but the groom was entitled to compliment, for he had a manly figure and pleasing countenance. He was attired as an English cavalier, and wore a short sword upon his thigh as an emblem of distinction. Standing upon the chancel steps, where there was no railing, the minister with impressive voice and manner read the marriage service of the Anglican church which made the European and the American husband and wife.

This happy union brought peace, and made Powhatan the friend of the settlers for the remainder of his life. When Governor Dale sailed for England, in 1616, Rolfe and "Lady Rebecca" (for was she not the daughter of a King?) and a number of their friends went with him. She received marked attentions from the court and the highest dignitaries in the kingdom. One of her happy experiences, during the year she spent in England, was a meeting with Captain John Smith, whom she called "father," and who was as delighted to meet her as she was pleased to see him.

When Pocahontas was making ready to return to America, she unhappily fell ill and died. Her son, Thomas Rolfe, became one of the leading citizens of Virginia, and there is no prouder lineage to-day in the Old Dominion than that which leads back through the centuries to the dusky daughter of Powhatan.

Death of Pocahontas, 1617

When Dale embarked for England, he left Argall as deputy Governor; but he was a rogue, and escaped only by flight the execution of the order of arrest sent across the ocean. George Yeardley then became Governor, and showed himself to be so excellent a ruler and so just a man that the prosperity of the colony brightened. During his administration, in 1619, the London Company sent out one hundred poor but respectable young women, who were anxious to seek their

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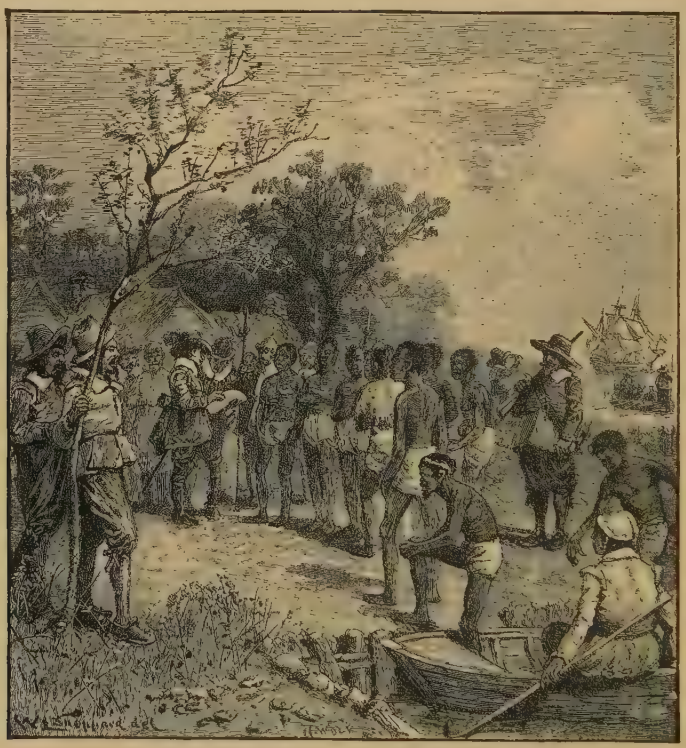
fortunes in the New World. No visitors ever received a more cordial welcome, and they were not kept waiting for husbands. Each man who found favor in the eyes of one of the lasses could wed her only by paying the price of her passage, which was a certain number of pounds of tobacco. Other young women continued to arrive, with the happy result that the settlers, who all along had harbored the intention of returning at some time to England, now gave up that



INTRODUCTION OF AFRICAN SLAVERY

purpose and came to look upon Virginia as their home, where all their hopes and interests now centered.

Introduction of African Slavery, 1619

It was the same year (1619), that another vessel sailed up the James, with a very different cargo. She had some twenty Negroes who had been kidnapped by a Dutch captain on the coast of Guinea, in Africa. He brought the wretched beings to Jamestown with the hope of selling them as slaves. The settlers, who were absorbed in the cultivation of tobacco, gladly paid the price demanded for this

human freight, and thus it was that the baleful institution of African slavery was introduced into this country.

The wise and thoughtful Yeardley saw that the settlers were longing for the same freedom that their fellow-subjects enjoyed in England. With the consent of the London Council, he made a radical change in the political system then prevailing, by dividing the settlements into eleven boroughs, each of which had two representatives chosen by the people. These representatives, or burgesses, formed with the Governor and council the colonial government. The London authorities now gave a written constitution to the colony. It required that all laws passed by the Virginian council should be sent to England—where they could be ratified or rejected, while the laws made in England could not become operative in America until approved by the local body. This council, which met at Jamestown, in June, 1619, was called the House of Burgesses, and it became the first legislative assembly to perform its functions in the New World.

THE WARNING

Powhatan, the friend of the settlers, died, and was succeeded by his brother Opechankano, a treacherous chief, who hated the English intensely and began plotting their destruction. He nursed his schemes with great cunning and skill, meanwhile deceiving the settlers by his friendly professions, waiting months and years to complete his fell designs. In March, 1622, he was ready to deal the blow which was to strike terror to the heart of the colony. Disaster fell upon the settlements along the James with the suddenness of a lightning stroke. Men were shot down in the fields; mothers and their babes were

Indian Massacre, March, 1622

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tomahawked; and death in its most violent forms raged for more than a hundred miles along both sides of the river. Within one hour after the first war-whoop rang out through the forest, four hundred men, women, and children fell victims to the Indian greed for blood.

Warning of Friendly Christian Indian

Jamestown escaped through the favor of a Christian native, who learned of the intended massacre late on the evening preceding its occurrence. He hurried to the settlement, where preparations were hastily made and messengers sent out to warn the plantations. Most of these were so remote that it was impossible to reach them in time; but the majority of the colonists beat back their assailants and were saved. The Indians were made to suffer fearful punishment for this outrage. The infuriated settlers now became the aggressors. Every man who knew how to handle a gun took the field, and the savages were hunted down with merciless rigor. They were slaughtered right and left and driven into the depths of the wilderness, the chief, Opechankano, narrowly escaping with his life. Twenty years happily passed before there was any more trouble with the red men.

CHARLES I.

When the stricken colony again took heart, King James became displeased at the growth of republican sentiment in Virginia. The people there had a way of speaking their mind very plainly, and some of them were bold enough to think that the privileges accorded to them were no more than their rights. So, in October, 1623, the monarch replaced the charter with another, much less liberal in its provisions. The government was lodged in the hands of the Governor and twelve deputies to be appointed by the King, all of whom had to reside in England, while the executive power in Virginia was vested in a council of twelve, named by the Governor and his colleagues, but the appointments had first to receive the King's assent.

An Illiberal Charter, 1623

The House of Burgesses refused to accept this charter; but the King persisted, and cancelled the patent of the colony, which once more became a royal province. The King, however, made an unexpectedly wise use of his power; but before he could complete a number of reforms he had in view he died, March 27, 1625, and was suc-

Death of King James, March 27, 1625

ceeded by his son, Charles I. This monarch gave back to Virginia its favorite Governor, Sir George Yeardley, who had established the House of Burgesses, but, to the grief of all, he died two years afterwards. In passing it may be noted that most of the governors who were at the head of affairs during the next half-century were good, and Virginia prospered.

Referring again to the Indian chieftain, Opechankano, in spite of the lesson that had been taught him, and the loss of hundreds of his warriors, he again dared the anger of the settlers. An Indian, we know, however, is revengeful by nature, and this chief nursed his ire for nearly twenty years. He had now become more than fourscore and ten years of age, but the fires of hatred burned as fiercely in his breast as when he first buried his tomahawk in the head of the innocent babe and his knife in the heart of the pleading mother.

Second Indian Massacre, April 18, 1644

The second outbreak occurred April 18, 1644. Three hundred colonists were slain, when the remainder rallied and fell upon their dusky foes with the same relentless fury as before. Opechankano was taken prisoner, and died in Jamestown while a captive. The Indians, as the price of peace, gave up a large tract of land and withdrew still farther from the neighborhood of the settlements, where at that time the colonists numbered twenty thousand.

OLIVER CROMWELL

Virginia did not hesitate to show her loyalty to the royal house of England during the troublous times of Cromwell. When Charles I. was beheaded, the Virginians recognized his exiled son as the lawful sovereign, and were the last subjects to submit to the commonwealth which succeeded the now discredited monarchy.

Cromwell Sends Fleet to Virginia

With the view of bringing the colony to a sense of its duty, Cromwell, in 1652, sent a well-manned fleet to Virginia. With a threat of dire things that would be done if she held out, the commissioners offered such liberal concessions for the simple declaration of allegiance that they were accepted. Charles II. ascended the throne in 1660, and, in remembrance of the loyalty of the Virginians, he ordered the armies of the province to be quartered with those of Eng-

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land, Scotland, and Ireland, as an independent member of the empire. It is because of this fact that Virginia received the title of, and became known as, the "Old Dominion". Sir William Berkeley, who showed his adherence to the English monarchy by accepting his commission from the exiled prince instead of from Cromwell, was reelected Governor, and his second commission was signed by the same hand which now ruled as Charles II. of England. As Berkeley grew older he became bigoted, tyrannical, and heartless. In one of his reports these words occur: "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing in Virginia, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought heresy and disobedience and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them and libels against the best government. God keep us from both."

CHARLES II.

The Navigation Act, 1660

The Navigation Act bore vexatiously upon Virginia. This required that all colonial commerce, whether of exports or imports, should be carried in British ships; it also heavily taxed the trade between the colonies, and forbade the exportation of tobacco to any country save England. But despite all this, Virginia, in 1670, had a population of forty thousand persons, including two thousand slaves, while eighty ships were engaged in the tobacco trade. The militia numbered eight thousand; there was a fort on the Potomac, one on the York, another on the Rappahannock, and two on the James.

Virginia Transferred to Arlington and Culpeper

Founded in 1660, the Assembly of Virginia prevented for sixteen years the election of any new members, preserving its own power of adjournment and coming together. In 1673, the King gave all of Virginia to the Earl of Arlington and Lord Culpeper for the term of thirty-one years. The alarmed colonists sent a protest to the King, but without avail. Naturally, two parties were the outgrowth of this state of affairs. One consisted of Governor Berkeley and his followers, who were staunch royalists, and who oppressed the colonists in every way possible; the other was composed of those who suffered from this injustice, including the more thoughtful members of the council, who saw ruin and civil war at hand.

GOVERNOR BERKELEY AND THE INSURGENTS

The tyranny of Berkeley and his pliant council became intolerable. Appeals to the King being useless, the colonists in their desperation were on the point of revolting, when the pretext for which they longed presented itself. The Indians invaded Virginia from the north, and everywhere spread death and consternation. Sir Henry Chicheley, the lieutenant-governor, made his preparations in the spring of 1675 to march against them. He had gathered a force of five hundred men, and all was ready, when orders were received from Governor Berkeley disbanding the volunteers. The exasperated settlers obeyed. The charge was made, doubtless with truth, that the Governor was anxious to keep the monopoly of the beaver trade with the Indians, and meant to favor them, regardless of the safety of the people. The savages became bolder than ever, and slew men, women, and children with the ferocity which they had shown when led by the fierce Opechankano.

Bacon's Rebellion 1675-76

Nathaniel Bacon, a brave and popular young planter, who owned several holdings on the James, felt that something must be done or the exposed settlers would perish. He and a number of his friends asked the Governor for leave to arm themselves, but this Berkeley refused. Bacon denounced his action, and told his neighbors that he was ready to lead them against the raiding savages without the Governor's leave. He declared further, that on news reaching him of the first outrage, he would call for volunteers to punish their enemies.

The next tidings that came to Bacon's ears was that the Indians had raided one of his own plantations near Richmond, and killed a servant and his overseer. To the excited colonists who now gathered, Bacon again denounced the Governor, and declared that the choice was left of sitting down and waiting for the Indians to tomahawk them all, or to defend themselves.

Governor Berkeley's Proclamation

The Virginians responded almost to a man, and placed Bacon at their head. He asked the Governor for a commission, but it was denied. Then Bacon marched against the Indians without the formality of a commission. Berkeley turned purple with anger, and proclaimed Bacon a rebel, and ordered him to disperse his men. Bacon told those who were alarmed at the Governor's proclamation that they were at liberty to go home. So many timidly did so that the young Virginian was left with but fifty-seven volunteers. With those, however, he set out to punish the marauders.

Meanwhile, the furious Berkeley did not content himself with

words, but at the head of a troop of horse started in pursuit of Bacon. Before he came up with the rebels a messenger overtook the Governor with the news that the lower settlements had revolted. This "fire in the rear" compelled Berkeley to turn back and give his attention to matters of more importance. When he reached Jamestown, he found the clamor so vehement for a reduction of taxes and the dissolution of the assembly, that, loath as he was to do so, he was obliged to grant both demands.

"SHOOT! SHOOT! IF YOU WISH"

Bacon Elected a Burgess, and Made Commander-in-Chief

During these stirring days, Bacon was striking telling blows against the Indians. He almost rooted out the offending tribe, after which he returned and disbanded his company. In the election which followed, Bacon was chosen to a seat in the House of Burgesses from Henrico county, and was elected commander-in-chief of the militia; but Berkeley, still full of animus, refused to sign the commission. Bacon, having retired to his plantation, was followed by several hundred friends, who, despite the Governor's action, proclaimed him the lawful commander-in-chief. Backed in this imposing fashion, Bacon led his force to Jamestown, and demanded of the Governor that he should no longer delay to sign the commission.

The humiliation was too deep to be borne. Striding out in front of the insurgents, the savage Berkeley smote his breast and shouted: "Shoot! shoot! if you wish! I offer you a fair mark!" Bacon approached, and bowing respectfully, said: "Not a hair of your head, sir, shall be harmed. I have come for a commission that we may take measures to save our lives from the Indians."

Altercation with the Governor

The Governor became cooler after a time, and, urged by his friends, signed the commission, as well as ratified the acts of the House of Burgesses, by which the right of voting was restored to every freeman in the province, guilty magistrates were punished, and a number of reform measures made effective. It is worth noting that all this was done exactly one hundred years before the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

The Indians having renewed their outrages, Bacon placed himself at the head of the Virginia forces and once more marched against them. Hardly had he set out, when the faithless Berkeley crossed the York River into Gloucester (*glos'ter*) county, and proclaimed Bacon a traitor. He also gathered his friends around him, and among them a large number of slaves, to whom he promised freedom and plenty of plunder for their help in punishing the rebels.

Concerted Action of the Colonists

Bacon felt that the Governor had pushed him into a revolution. He asked the Virginians to meet at the Middle Plantations—now Williamsburg—to decide what should be done. They came together at noon on a sultry August day, and continued their earnest session until midnight. All pledged themselves to support their leader in his movement against the Indians and to prevent civil war. Among the prominent men who took part in this assemblage was John Washington, great-grandfather of George Washington. Another was William Drummond, first Governor of North Carolina, who proposed that the departure of Governor Berkeley from Jamestown should be declared an abdication or giving up of the government. This declaration was made, and Bacon and four other members of the provincial council issued writs for the election of an assembly to provide for a new government.

At this critical juncture an unexpected piece of good fortune came to the Governor. Five English ships and ten sloops arrived. Upon these Berkeley embarked his motley company of adventurers, slaves, sailors, and even Indians, sailed for Jamestown, and again proclaimed Bacon a traitor. The latter had just returned from a suc-

From the Original Drawing by C. M. Ralyea

BURNING OF JAMESTOWN

cessful campaign against the Indians. In command of his followers he marched to Jamestown, when the cowardly Governor scurried on board the boats again, and Bacon and his followers entered Jamestown. Not knowing how soon they would be driven out, a council of war was held, at which it was decided to burn the place to prevent its affording shelter to the obnoxious royalists. Drummond, who owned one of the finest residences in the village, applied the torch to his own dwelling. All that remains to-day of the first English settlement planted in America are the ruins of the church tower and a few tombstones in the graveyard near-by.

Jamestown Given to the Flames

Many of Berkeley's supporters now deserted, and joined Bacon, who determined to cross the Chesapeake and drive the royalists out of Virginia. When everything promised success to the insurgents, Bacon was seized with a malignant fever and died, October 11, 1676. There was no one fitted to succeed him, and the rebellion quickly ended. Before the close of the month Berkeley was again at the head of the government, and displayed much malignity in punishing those who had taken part in the insurrection. Drummond and twenty-one others were hanged, three died in prison, and five, condemned to death, effected their escape. Even Berkeley's supporters protested, and King Charles ordered the executions to stop. "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country," said the monarch, "than I have done here for the murder of my father." Berkeley was recalled in the following spring. Upon his departure the colonists lighted bonfires and fired cannon to express their joy. Berkeley was severely condemned in England for his brutalities, and soon died of mortification and chagrin.

Death of Bacon, Oct. 11, 1676

Colonel Herbert Jeffreys now arrived as the successor of Berkeley, and he and Admiral Sir John Berry and Colonel Morrison were appointed commissioners to inquire into the facts regarding the late rebellion and to adjust affairs. Something resembling order was reestablished, only the most guilty of the insurgents being punished, after which a general amnesty was declared.

Colonel Jeffreys' Rule, 1677-1678

Lord Culpeper, one of the King's favorites, to whom the province had been leased for thirty-one years, was now appointed Governor, with a salary double that paid to any predecessor. Nevertheless, the Earl remained at home for three years, having little fancy for the office given to him, and indeed never would have set out for America had not the King ordered him to do so. He stayed in Virginia

Culpeper's Rule, 1680-1684

through the summer, during which he lived the life of a profligate, plundered the colonists right and left, and robbed them of many of their dearest privileges, after which he returned to England, to expend in riotous living the money he had stolen from the people. He was sent back to the colony in 1682, and renewed his former excesses, or rather surpassed them, and another insurrection broke out. His reports of the occurrences caused the King to issue orders for the hanging of the leading insurgents. When, however, the monarch learned the truth, he recalled the grant to Arlington and Culpeper, and Virginia once more became a royal province.

Grant to Arlington and Culpeper Cancelled

The Old Dominion was doomed to suffer a blight from bad rulers. Lord Howard of Effingham, the successor of Culpeper, was as avaricious as a miser and totally lacking in moral principle. When the tension became so great that the people in their desperation were about to appeal to arms again, news arrived of the death of King Charles and the accession of his brother, the Duke of York. The colonists sent Philip Leedwell to England to lay their case before the King. He arrived at about the time that William and Mary were placed on the throne. Although Effingham held the title, and drew the salary as Governor for several years, he was not allowed to return.

Francis Nicholson next became Lieutenant-Governor of the province. He had learned much from his troublous experiences in New York, and now made an excellent ruler. He manifested such enlightened, statesman-like views, and instituted so many reforms and improvements, that the House of Burgesses gratefully presented him with three hundred pounds beyond his official salary. Nicholson gave one-half of it towards the founding of William and Mary College, the second-oldest educational institution in the country.

Founding of William and Mary College

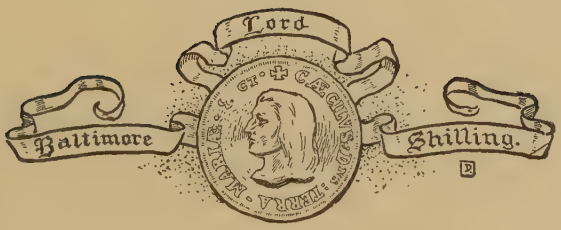
Nicholson, after a two-years' lease of office, returned to England, probably in hope of the promotion which he had earned, and Sir Edmund Andros,* in 1692, came over as his successor, bringing the

*Sir Edmund Andros (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1714) was a protege of the Duke of York, afterwards James II., and, though personally of an unblemished character, he upheld the claims and gave effect to the arbitrary policy of his royal but tyrannous master. We shall meet with him again in the next chapter, in connection with English rule in New York, of which colony he was Governor from 1674 to 1682. He became Governor of New England in 1686, but, three years afterwards, the Boston magistracy deposed and imprisoned him, and sent him for trial to England. There he was released, and later on, as we have seen, was appointed Governor of Virginia. In 1698, he was recalled to England, and subsequently represented the Crown in one of the Channel Islands.

charter of William and Mary College with him. He, too, had profited by experience, and, on the whole, made a good Governor.

Virginia's Prosperous Growth

From this time forward, until the middle of the eighteenth century, Virginia advanced in prosperity and extended her population. Joist Hite, in 1732, took up forty thousand acres, near the site of Winchester, and settled it with a colony from Pennsylvania. Those who came after them penetrated beyond the mountains, a number making their homes in the valley of the Monongahela. Between 1700 and 1750, the population in Virginia increased nearly fivefold. Williamsburg became the capital, and there, in 1736, William Parks began the publication of a weekly newspaper. The towns of Richmond and Petersburg were laid out by William Byrd, and Norfolk, Fredericksburg, and Falmouth were incorporated, while new counties were formed, and the prosperity of the historic royal province of Virginia continued without serious check.



PETER STUYVESANT, DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF NEW NETHERLAND

CHAPTER X

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW YORK

[*Authorities*: The annals of so important a center as New York can, of course, only briefly be touched upon within the compass of a single chapter in the present narrative. For the minutiae of the history, social as well as political, of Manhattan and the Middle Colonies, the reader must necessarily be referred to special and local compilations. Perhaps the most comprehensive of these is Mary Lamb's "History of New York," a mine of information respecting the origin and later development of the Metropolis from Hudson's discovery of the region, through the period of Dutch and early English rule down to recent times. Stone's "New York City," Schuyler's "Colonial New York," O'Callaghan's "New Netherlands," and Lossing's "Empire State," give delightful glimpses of the social and economic condition of the New Netherlands, with much interesting lore concerning New Amsterdam especially, and the contiguous region, southward among the Swedish colonies on the Atlantic, and northward among the Dutch settlements on the Hudson. Many quaint pictures of early social life and modes of government on the banks of the Hudson will also be found in Elting's "Dutch Village Communities," in the series of Johns Hopkins University Studies, and in General James Grant Wilson's "Memorial History of the City of New York."]

Street-Scene New Amsterdam.

IT has been deemed best, in relating the history of the thirteen original colonies, to do so in the order in which they were settled. We have traced the account of Virginia from the first settlement within its borders down to the middle of the eighteenth century; but although no reference has been made to the other colonies, the reader will bear in mind that during that period (somewhat less than a hundred and fifty years) twelve other colonies had been planted within the present limits of the United States. Most of them were vigorous and flourishing. Naturally, too, the interests of these colonies became interwoven with each other, and, as will be seen, when the mutterings of revolution were heard through the land, they were drawn

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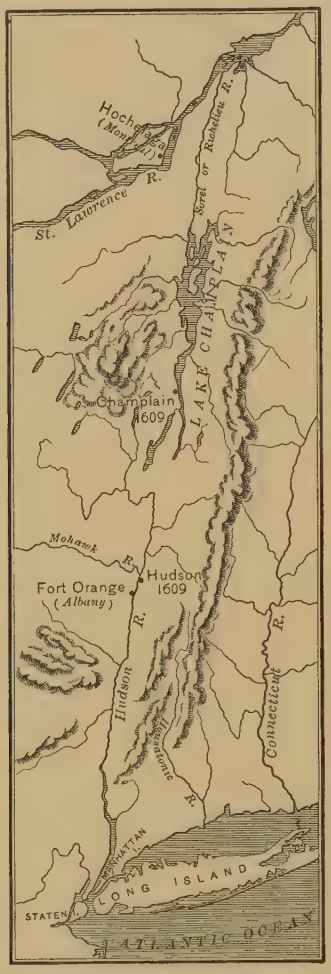


HISTORIC WATERWAYS

still closer, and the citizens became brothers, with the same hopes and inspirations stirring the hearts of all.

Now, if the student of this history will let his mind run back to the year 1609, he will recall the fact that the Old Dominion was like a feeble and dwindling youth. An accident to John Smith, the Father of Virginia, as he has been called, compelled him to return to England for surgical treatment. Left without his vigorous and wise rule, the miserable colony was fast hastening to decay. Seaward rolled the turbulent Atlantic, while north, west, and south stretched an unbroken wilderness, peopled by wild beasts and equally wild red men. Nor must it be forgotten that Jamestown at that time was the only English colony within the present limits of the United States.

Holland during the Seventeenth Century

At that period, Holland had become the greatest maritime nation in the world. Her vessels ploughed every known sea, carrying brooms at their mastheads to show that they swept the ocean; but the sturdy Dutchmen were of a frugal mind. They cared little for the glory of discovering new lands, but cared a good deal for the profits that might be gained from such discoveries. Thus it was that when it became clear that a vast field for trade could be cultivated in America, the Dutch began to feel an interest in the new country.

The Dutch East India Company

The Dutch East India Company was formed about the beginning of the seventeenth century. It was a very wealthy corporation, composed, in the main, of the leading merchants of Amsterdam. To them went Captain Henry Hudson, who had hitherto made a couple of unsuccessful attempts to find a polar passage to India for a company of London merchants. Hudson was an able navigator, with a

special fondness for adventure; and so when he made his appeal, he met with little trouble in persuading the directors of the Dutch East India Company that an arctic passage could be found by sailing to the northeast, that is, round the north of Europe instead of round the north of America.

The Voyage of the "Half Moon," 1608

Hudson was furnished with a small vessel of ninety tons, manned by an excellent crew. She was named the *Half Moon*, and left Texel in April, 1608, for Nova Zembla. After bumping about among the icebergs, which, as he proceeded on his way, increased in size and number, he was compelled once more to turn back. Then he tried the northwest passage, but was foiled as before, and now, heading southward, he sighted the coast of Maine in July, 1609. After repairing his battered vessel, he pushed on, still southward, touched at Cape Cod, and finally reached the headlands of Virginia. There he probably heard that the English had made a settlement, for he now turned northward, and entered the harbor of New York early in the beautiful autumnal month of September.

Here he saw the broad, noble stream, the "Rhine of America," flowing into the bay. Confident in his own mind that it was a strait connecting with the Indian Ocean, he ascended it a short distance and anchored. Hardly had he done so when the natives swarmed around the *Half Moon* in their canoes, all making friendly signs, and eager to go on board. Hudson, however, because of his former experience with Indians, was suspicious, and kept them at a distance. The vessel continued leisurely up stream, and was a cause of great wonder to the dusky people who had never seen or imagined so amazing a sight.

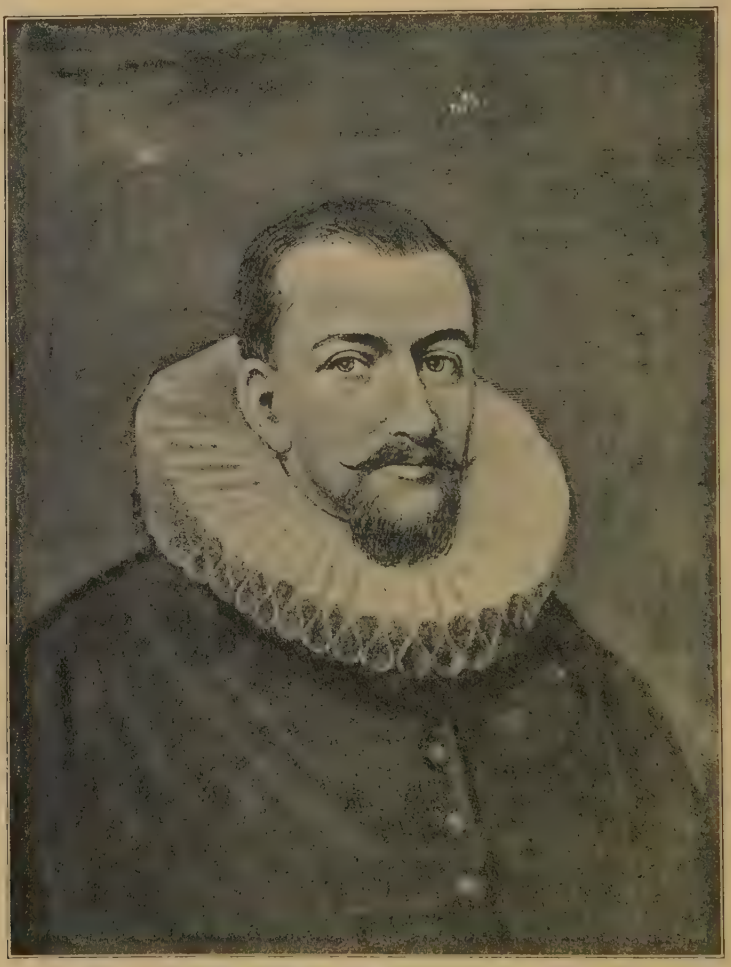
Ascent of the Hudson by the "Half Moon"

This was the first time a white man had ever looked upon this river, now one of the most famous in the world, and the sail of the *Half Moon* up the stream was a romantic experience to both the Dutch and the English sailors. By and by, Hudson noticed that the river was narrowing and the water freshening—two facts which proved that he had not yet discovered the longed-for passage to India. He sailed up the river to the vicinity of where Albany now stands, returning at the same tardy pace, often dropping anchor and bartering with the Indians.

It will be understood that although Captain Hudson was an Englishman, he sailed under the Dutch flag, and he, therefore, took possession of all that he discovered in the name of the States-General of

Holland. It was thus that that country acquired its well-founded claim to the present State of New York.

The fate of Hudson was a mournful one. His discovery made him so famous that his King would not permit him to leave England



HENRY HUDSON, THE NAVIGATOR

except on another mission of discovery. In the spring of 1610, he sailed on his fourth voyage in search of a northwest passage. He passed through the strait and into the immense bay named after him. He spent several months in that region of snow and ice and desolation, where the sufferings of himself and crew were so great that he

The Fate of Captain Hudson

decided to leave several behind. Dreading that this might happen, they mutinied, and placed Hudson, his son, and seven men, in an open shallop, then turned them adrift, and they were never heard of again.

In the following spring the *Half Moon* returned to England, laden with trinkets and gew-gaws, and was again sent back to the country of the Hudson to trade for peltries with the Indians. The island of Manhattan was selected as the central mart, to which the furs of the bear, beaver, otter, and other animals were to be brought for shipment. In the autumn of 1613, the Dutchmen erected a number of rude cabins for their shelter, and these formed the germ of the present great commercial metropolis of the New World.

Beginning of Trade in Manhattan

SEAL OF NEW NETHERLAND

The Dutchmen were not slow in learning the value of that part of the country. They explored Long Island Sound, Narragansett Bay, and the region beyond Boston harbor. Block Island was named in honor of Captain Adrien Block, who made these explorations. On the 11th of October, 1614, the States-General of Holland granted a charter to a company of Amsterdam merchants, by which they were given exclusive privileges of trade, for a period of three years, in the province of New Netherland, the designated name of the land lying between the parallels of 40° and 45° north.

This grant, it will be noted, included all of New England, a claim which Great Britain was certain to dispute. A settlement was made in 1615, on a small island below Albany, where a post was erected called Fort Orange. The cabins on Manhattan Island increased in number until it gave promise of soon becoming a town. The Dutch, who began penetrating the Mohawk valley, showed their wisdom by making a treaty of peace with the Iroquois or Five Nations, the most powerful tribal league that ever existed.

The Dutch West India Company

The Dutch West India Company was formed in 1621, and was one of the most important trading enterprises, if perhaps we except the East India Company, ever known. It was a colossal monopoly, with imperial powers that were to last for twenty-two years, and which gave it the exclusive right to colonize, govern, and trade on the coast of Africa, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good

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Hope, and over the entire unoccupied coast of America from Newfoundland to the Straits of Magellan.

The fleet of this enormous corporation consisted of thirty-two vessels of war, eighteen armed sloops, and many merchant ships. New Netherland, naturally, fell under the administration of the Company, and in March, 1623, it fitted out a vessel, named the *New Netherland*, designed for trade in the country of the same name. It was a staunch, well-found ship, like the people who launched her, and took out as colonists one hundred and ten men, women, and children, comprising thirty families. They were plentifully provided with domestic animals and agricultural implements. These settlers,

The Walloon Colony

PURCHASE OF MANHATTAN ISLAND

known as "Walloons," had been driven from Holland by cruel persecution, in consequence of their religious beliefs. The old country homes of these voluntary exiles had been in the southern part of the Netherlands, most of whose population were Roman Catholics. The Walloons were of French origin, and were now seeking an abiding-place where they could worship God as they thought right.

Settlements Made by the Walloons

Captain Cornelius Jacobsen May, of Hoern, had charge of the ship and was ordered to remain in New Netherland, as first director or Governor. The immigrants, a frugal, thrifty people, landed near the fort on Castle Island in May, 1624. They had come with the expectation of doing manual labor, and they set to work with a will. They went in different directions—some proceeded south, towards the Delaware River, some went towards Connecticut; while others went to the western end of Long Island, or Walloon's Bay (now known as Wallabout Bay), and where, it may be said, the city of Brooklyn was founded. A party of them settled on the present site

of Albany, which they named Fort Orange; while a small company made their homes on the eastern side of the Delaware, a short distance below where the city of Philadelphia now stands. The Delaware was called the South River, to distinguish it from the North River, or Hudson, a name which is still in use.

Cheering news soon reached the directors of the Company in Amsterdam. The first ship which arrived at that port from the colony across the Atlantic brought ten thousand dollars' worth of furs, with the glad news that the people were pleased with their distant home and were thriving. The Company lost no time in sending out more emigrants, always plentifully provided with domestic animals, seeds, and agricultural implements.

A DUTCH WINDMILL

The Early Governors of New Netherland

Captain May was Governor until 1625, when William Verhult succeeded him, while Peter Minuit took charge in May, 1626. The latter is generally looked upon as the first real Governor of New Netherland. He made Manhattan the chief commercial and administrative site, and brought all the settlements under one government. He bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for a lot of trinkets, worth, it is said, about twenty dollars.* A fort was staked out at the lower point of the island, where the "Battery" afterwards stood, and was named Fort Amsterdam, and the town which grew up around it was called New Amsterdam.

Thus it will be seen that while the English colony was bravely struggling and gaining ground in Virginia, the Dutch one in New York was making steady, if slow, progress. The latter were the right kind of people for pioneers, and their progress at

*This document, written on vellum in Dutch, was sold in recent years in New York for $1,700. It attests the sale in 1630 to Kilian van Rensselaerswyck. He was an absentee landlord, and Peter Minuit was his agent.

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

the beginning was attended by no such dreadful scenes and drawbacks as afflicted their neighbors to the southward.

But mistakes were made, and one of the greatest committed was that of the commissioner at Fort Orange. He allowed the Mohican Indians to persuade him to help them in a war against the Mohawks. He and a number who went with him on the war-path were killed. Foreseeing the terrible consequences of this blunder (for the Mohawks belonged to the Iroquois league), Governor Minuit ordered nearly all the settlers to join him at Manhattan, leaving only a small garrison at Fort Orange. The Governor wisely understood the need of keeping on good terms with this powerful confederation of red men.

Peter Minuit 1626-1632

New Amsterdam grew slowly. Two years after Minuit became Governor, the population was less than three hundred; but affairs were prosperous, and a good and growing trade was carried on with the Indians. With the view of increasing immigration, the Company, in 1629, adopted what is known as the "patroon system." This decreed that any member of the Company who should plant a colony of fifty persons, all more than fifteen years old, in New Netherland, should be patroon, or master, of the territory of which he took possession. In other words, he would own the land and rule the people, just as if they were one family of which he was the head. He could establish courts and magistrates in all the villages and towns which might grow up. He was the highest in authority, and appeals could be taken from his decision only to the Director-General of New Netherland. By paying a small tax, he could use all lands, rivers, and woods lying within and adjacent to his own domain, and could also trade wherever the Company did. His written consent was necessary before a man or woman servant could leave his service (no matter how badly treated), previous to the end of the time for which such servant had been engaged. The Company bound itself to protect the patroons in all their privileges, and these manorial estates might be sixteen miles in length, if lying on one side of a river, or eight miles if on both sides. Another requirement was that the land should be first bought of the Indians, and that none of the occupants of the holdings should be taxed during the first ten years of their tenancy. This was the patroon system, a relic of the feudal ages, and it never ought to have been planted upon American soil. These first legalized lordships in the New World gave rise to a class of wealthy landowners, whose names—such as the Van Rensselaers,

The Patroon System

Schuylers, Courtlandts, and others—are familiar in the mouths of modern New Yorkers.

The shrewd burghers in old Amsterdam did not let these golden opportunities slip by unimproved. They took time by the forelock, and more than one of them bought tracts in America before the act creating the patroons had become law. The most notable instance was that of Kilian van Rensselaer, one of the directors, who, through

WOUTER VAN TWILLER

the commissary at Fort Orange, purchased a large area on the western side of the Hudson, to which he afterwards added immense territory. The greedy patroons made haste to take up valuable tracts, not only in New Netherland, but in New Jersey and Delaware, and their eagerness to profit through the trade with the Indians led to so vigorous a rivalry that the Company had to check the unseemly practice, and the no less unseemly wrangle to which it gave rise.

Check on Greed of Patroons

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Governor Minuit was suspected of favoring the patroons, and was in consequence recalled in 1632. He was succeeded, in the following year, by Wouter Van Twiller, a fat blockhead, lacking even ordinary ability. One of the most lively narratives ever written is the "Knickerbocker History of New York," by Washington Irving, in which Governor Van Twiller is the central figure. Of course the pictures drawn by the gifted author are exaggerated; and yet it seems hard to exaggerate such a character as the stupid Van Twiller. Irving's description of this personage is so amusing as to warrant its introduction here. It is as follows:

Governor Wouter Van Twiller, 1633-1637

"He was exactly five feet six inches high, and six feet five inches in circumference. His head was a perfect sphere, and of such stupendous dimensions that dame nature, with all her sex's ingenuity, would have been puzzled to construct a neck capable of supporting it; wherefore she wisely declined the attempt, and settled it firmly on the top of his backbone, just between the shoulders. His legs were very short, but sturdy in proportion to the weight they had to sustain; so that when erect, he had not a little the appearance of a beer-barrel on skids. His face, that infallible index of the mind, presented a vast expanse, unfurrowed by any of those lines and angles which disfigure the human countenance with what is termed expression. Two small grey eyes twinkled feebly in the midst, like two stars of lesser magnitude in a hazy firmament; and his full-fed cheeks, which seemed to have taken toll of everything that went into his mouth, were curiously mottled and streaked with dusky red, like a Spitzenberg apple. His habits were as regular as his person. He daily took his four stated meals, appropriating exactly an hour to each; he smoked and doubted eight hours, and he slept the remaining twelve of the four-and-twenty."

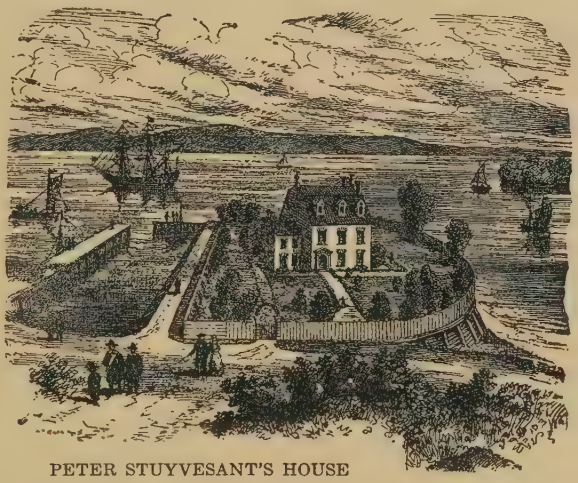
Governor William Kieft, 1637-1646

New Netherland prospered, even with this good-natured dolt at the head of affairs; but he was recalled in 1637, and William Kieft (*keeft*) became his successor. Kieft was a peppery, quarrelsome, avaricious man, quick to resent any insult to his dignity, or any encroachment upon the province of New Netherland. Finding soon that a party of English had settled on the northwestern end of Long Island, he promptly drove them away. Learning, too, that a number of English immigrants from New Haven had built a factory on the Delaware, the Governor burned the property, and captured the immigrants. In fact, Kieft was continually in hot water; and sev-

eral times New Netherland was on the point of revolting against his doings. Nevertheless, though a bad man, he did the province much good, after its long stagnation under Van Twiller.

Peter Minuit, the first Governor, felt anything but friendly toward Holland because of its treatment of him, and in 1638, he led a party of Swedes and Finns to Delaware Bay, where they bought land from the Indians and erected a fort which was named Christina, in honor of the infant Queen of Sweden. Governor Kieft looked upon these doings as an invasion of Dutch territory, but was afraid to drive out the people, and the settlement increased until it numbered a hundred families, who were located a short distance below the present site of Philadelphia.

Settlement in Delaware by the Swedes



PETER STUYVESANT'S HOUSE

As if the quarrels at home were not enough, trouble soon broke out with the Indians. Many outrages were committed by the Dutch settlers as well as by the Mohawks. Kieft determined to destroy the whole tribe of the latter, and one night, in the winter of 1643, his men attacked a Mohawk village, on the present site of Hoboken, and killed nearly every warrior, squaw, and child, within its bounds. This cruel and impolitic act had its grim sequel; for other bands of this powerful tribe retaliated in the most fearful manner. They laid cabins, hamlets, and villages in ashes until the terrified settlers sued for peace. The truce, however, lasted but a little while, when war began again and continued for two years. Finally, peace was established in 1645, and all joined in the general thanksgiving. Governor Kieft was blamed for the shocking occurrences, and, to the joy of every one, he was recalled in 1646. He sailed the following year for Holland, but the vessel was wrecked on the coast of Wales and he was drowned.

Slaughter of the Mohawks

The successor of Kieft was Peter Stuyvesant (*sti'-ve-sant*). He

"Old Silver Leg"

was a gallant Dutch soldier, and had lost a leg in the service of his country. At the time of his appointment he was forty-four years old, of inflexible will, a strict disciplinarian, fond of pomp, but withal just and honest. His artificial leg was clamped around with a number of silver rings, a circumstance which caused him to be called (when he was beyond hearing) "Old Silver Leg." He was received with the firing of guns and shouts of welcome when he landed one bright morning, in May, 1647, for the people were so tired of Kieft that they were ready to welcome any one.

Governor Stuyvesant's Character and Rule

Stuyvesant was a despot, but he meant well, and did good service in New Netherland; for he was wise, and could not fail to benefit the country that had been ruled so ill. One of his first acts was to persuade the people to abolish the monopoly that had existed in trade. He looked after the morals of the inhabitants, restricted the sale of liquor to the Indians, and infused a new energy into commerce and industry. He was, moreover, so just and considerate in his treatment of the red men that he soon won their confidence.

Stuyvesant was watchful of the encroachments of his neighbors, north and south. He sent a protest to the English Governor in Boston against the settlement of his people within Dutch territory. In reply he was invited to meet the Governor and talk over matters.

A Dutch vessel anchored in the harbor of New Haven, the waters of which belonged to the English. She had not paid her dues in New Amsterdam. In defiance of law, the Governor caused her seizure, whereupon the settlers arrested three of Stuyvesant's servants and threw them into prison. He demanded their release, but no attention was paid to his request. Then he asked that they might be set free, and this too, was refused. Thereupon, the Governor wrote home for instructions. The Dutch West India Company replied by telling him to get on without quarreling with his neighbors. The advice was good; but it was not what the fiery Governor expected, and it cannot be supposed that he was pleased with it.

Arbitration between Dutch and English

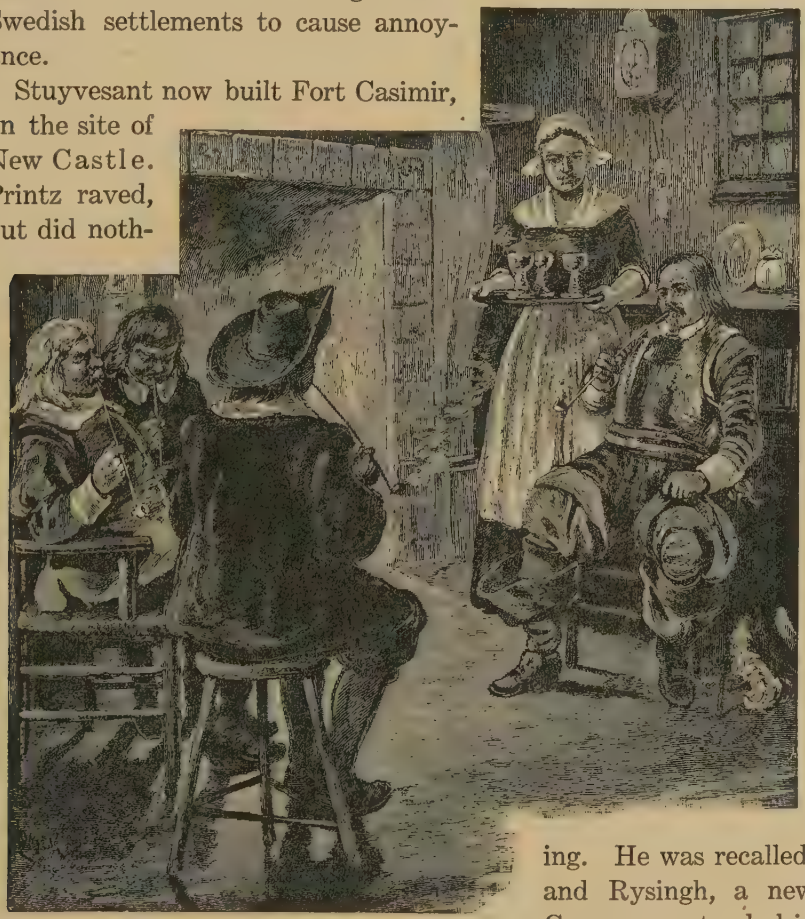
Unwilling to yield his claims, Stuyvesant saw but one recourse left to him: he proposed to submit the dispute to arbitration. This was done, and the decision was in favor of the English, most of the territory in question being awarded to them.

The Governor now turned his attention to the intruders in New Sweden, as the country occupied by the Swedes on both sides of the Delaware was called. Their Governor was named Printz, and his

temper was as fiery as that of Stuyvesant, while his size and strength were like those of Hercules. He treated the few Dutch settlers in the territory with great harshness, but allowed them to hold one petty military post, called Fort Nassau, just above the Schuylkill (*skool'kil*), because it was not near enough to the Swedish settlements to cause annoyance.

Stuyvesant and the Swedes

Stuyvesant now built Fort Casimir, on the site of New Castle. Printz raved, but did nothing. He was recalled, and Rysingh, a new Governor, took his place. The latter was scarcely installed in office when he proceeded to capture Fort Casimir, and then "Old Silver Leg" stamped about and denounced the pestilent Swedes. In the spring of 1655 he sent a strong force to the Delaware, which recaptured Fort Casimir and took Fort Christina. Thus ended Swedish rule in America. The Swedes, however, stayed on in the country, becoming first Dutch and then English



A DUTCH HOUSEHOLD

End of Swedish Rule in America, 1655

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subjects, being evidently as well suited with the one rule as with the other.

When Stuyvesant returned from his expedition to the south, he found that trouble had broken out with the Indians. As usual, the first outrage was committed by the white people, and a massacre of them followed; but the Governor soon established peace, after which the history ran on uneventfully for a number of years.

The Knickerbockers

There was a quaint simplicity, a thrift, neatness, and honest look about those old Dutch households that gave them an attractiveness seen nowhere else. Life was like a mellow dream. The sturdy burghers sat in their porches in mild weather, and within doors, in front of their broad fireplaces, when the air was keen, and placidly smoked their long-stemmed pipes, and drank their home-brewed ale, while the deft fingers of the housewife plied the knitting-needles or were busy with the spinning-wheel. Early rising was not a virtue among the Knickerbockers, but in summer they went to bed at sunset. The fashionable hours for parties during winter were from three to six o'clock. This gave time for evening devotions and the preparations for bed at seven.

All the male members smoked, and would sit slowly puffing and looking dreamily into the fire for hours, without speaking a word. The floor was as clean as a pin, and strewn with white sand, with odd but pretty designs wrought by the broom of the housewife. Hospitality was universal, and all believed in good cheer. Contentment and happiness reigned everywhere.

The Governor's Rule Challenged

But among these kindly, stolid Hollanders were progressive men who chafed under the arbitrary rule of Stuyvesant, and, in their resentment, sometimes declared that they would be quite willing to try an English governor by way of a change. Their own ruler was impatient with the growing republicanism, and felt that his knowledge of the best way to rule the colony surpassed the combined wisdom of all the rest.

In 1653, two deputies from each village of the colony came together in convention in New Amsterdam, much to the disgust of Stuyvesant, who, however, could frame no pretext for preventing the meeting. These deputies dared to demand that no new law should be passed, and no person appointed to office, without the consent of the people themselves. When the demand was presented to Stuyvesant he flew into a passion, and told his callers that any set of men

who thought they knew enough to govern themselves were so many fools. The citizens presumed to argue the question with the Governor, whereupon he dissolved the assembly, curtly notifying the members that his authority came from God and the West India Company. The latter, on being appealed to, sustained the doughty Governor in all his claims.

But great changes came in the course of a few years. Charles II. assigned to his brother James, Duke of York, all of New Netherland, including a part of Connecticut, and also Long Island. The

THE DUTCH TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

English monarch had no moral right to this territory, but it was a case of might making right. Four ships-of-war, carrying four hundred and fifty soldiers, under command of Colonel Richard Nicolls, arrived before New Amsterdam in the latter part of August, 1664.

Capture of New Amsterdam by the English, 1664

Stuyvesant had been warned of what was coming, and he strove with might and main to rouse the Dutchmen to resistance. He stamped back and forth through the streets of New Amsterdam, swinging his cane about his head, cursing the rascally English, and calling upon his countrymen to rally and drive them back into the sea. But his anger was in vain. The Dutchmen believed that the impending change would prove a good thing, and they refused to raise a hand to defend the town.

From the Original Drawing by J. Gleeson

STUYVESANT'S VAIN APPEAL

It almost broke the Governor's heart to yield; and even when he saw that no force could be gathered for defense, he refused to consider the summons to surrender, declaring that he would rather die than submit to the English. But the hour came when he saw that his course was madness, and he had no choice left. The English offered conciliatory terms, but accompanied by the threat that, if he declined them, the troops would be landed and would take possession of the town. So at last he submitted, and the surrender was signed.

Justice to the memory of the greatest Dutch Governor that early New York ever had calls for a revision of the opinion that has long prevailed. Queen Wilhelmina of Holland, late in 1915, presented a bust of Peter Stuyvesant to the United States. It is the work of Toon Dupuis, the Dutch sculptor, and is as correct as could be made from the most authoritative sources. In place of the irascible, fiery-tempered old fellow—for which conception Washington Irving was chiefly responsible—we have the face of a man of refinement, of a scholar, and almost of a philosopher.

With a view of correcting the erroneous ideas concerning the famous Dutch Governor, Dr. Leonard C. van Noppen, Queen Wilhelmina's lecturer on Dutch literature at Columbia University, made the suggestion of the bust to Dr. Loudon, the Dutch Minister of Foreign Affairs, who referred it to the Queen, by whom it was enthusiastically approved. Prof. van Noppen says:

"The history of New York has never been written. The superficial treatment of this important subject by American historians is responsible for the ignorance and misconceptions now so common. To one who knows the Holland of that era, Irving's 'Knickerbocker' is amusing only because of its absurdity. Even to-day the attitude of New Yorkers toward the founders of this great city is on a par with that of those Europeans who still imagine New York city to be a barbaric trading-post in a wilderness abounding in bears and redskins. Peter Stuyvesant and the other founders of the commonwealth were, in refinement, manners and education, far superior to the supercilious Pilgrim or the pretentious Cavalier of that period. I do not say they were greater, but they were more civilized, and I say this not without proof. Many of the founders of early New York were graduates of Leyden, then the greatest university in Europe. As such they were men of culture. The true Peter Stuyvesant was not the one exhibited by Irving. He was a man of

True Character of Peter Stuyvesant

learning and of great refinement. To appreciate this compare the pictures of the bust with the one with which Americans are familiar. The influence of Holland on the government and civilization of England was prodigious. The latest authorities agree in ascribing to the Dutch also a remarkable influence on American institutions.

Dutch Influence on American Life

BUST OF PETER STUYVESANT, BY TOON DUPUIS

This conclusion is, however, at variance with popular belief. For it was the English and their descendants who for years wrote our history, though fortunately their account is no longer accepted at its face value. Yet here and there, culling from many sources, consulting various authorities, we are able to glean evidences of the influence of the Netherlands upon American civilization. John Adams, who negotiated the treaty whereby Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States — she was the second nation to do so — said: 'Holland's history and the great characters it exhibits in the various arts of peace, as well as of achievements of war, by sea and land, have been particularly studied, admired and imitated in every state.' He speaks of the resemblance between Holland and the United States in respect to freedom of inquiry, the right of private judgment and the liberty of conscience. Benjamin Franklin's testimony was that 'In all things Holland has been our example.'

Now while the extent of the influence of the Netherlands on our civilization—whether developed directly through the Dutch colonies in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware, or indirectly through the Pilgrims who had spent eleven years at Leyden, and through the Puritans who emigrated from eastern counties of England, which for centuries had been influenced by Dutch immigration—is not exactly determinable, yet it must be apparent to all that a study of Holland and her history and institutions is well worth the attention of the student."

New Amsterdam Becomes New York

The total population of New Amsterdam at the time the Dutch surrendered to the English, was about fifteen hundred. Its name was changed to New York, in honor of the Duke of York. The remainder of the province received the same name, while Fort Orange became Albany, to commemorate the Duke's Scottish title. Colonel Nicolls was proclaimed Deputy-Governor, and the citizens puffed their pipes and took the oath of allegiance, much as they would have taken a draught of "nut-brown ale" from their massive pewter mugs.

For a time, the English rule was so liberal and indulgent that the people were glad that the change had come. The villagers were allowed to choose their own magistrates, and the Navigation Act was suspended for six months, during which free trade prevailed with the ports of Holland. At Nicolls's request, he was relieved of the governorship of New York, and was succeeded by Colonel Francis Lovelace, who arrived in 1668. Fully acquainted with the wants of the colony, his rule was moderate and wise, and the contentment and prosperity continued. War now broke out between France and England on the one hand and the Netherlands on the other. This was in 1672, and in the month of August, a Dutch fleet of twenty-three ships, with a large force of men, anchored in the outer bay of New York. The citizens of the town welcomed their countrymen as liberators, for they had grown dissatisfied with the English rule. Governor Lovelace was absent on a visit to Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, and an express was sent after him. Colonel Manning, in command of the fort, called for volunteers, but none responded. He did all he could to gain time, until the Dutch lost patience and opened fire on the fort, which killed and wounded several men. The sparse but plucky garrison returned the fire, and six hundred Dutch soldiers were landed, who were joined by four hundred citizens in

Governor Lovelace's Rule, 1668-74

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

arms. The landing took place near where Trinity Church, Broadway, stood in later days, and the force was advancing to the attack, when Manning surrendered.

New York once more Changes Rulers

And so, once more, on the 9th of August, 1673, the flag of the Dutch republic waved over Fort Amsterdam. The name of the town was changed to New Orange, in compliment to William, Prince of Orange, and the outlying portions of New Netherland speedily submitted. Grim old Peter Stuyvesant at this time must have been the happiest man in the whole province.

Anthony Colve, the new Governor, was a wide-awake and energetic man, who took sharp steps to bring the remainder of the province to submission, and, at the same time, proceeded to put the lumbering old fort into good condition for defense. He was busy at this work, when in May, 1674, two men came in from the province of Connecticut with news that a treaty of peace had been signed between England and Holland, by the terms of which, the province of New Netherland was ceded to England. The Dutchmen of the town were so angry that they seized the bearers of the evil tidings and cast them into prison. The news, though unpalatable, was, however, true. The treaty had really been made, and all of the Dutch possessions in America passed again into the possession of England. Once more New Netherland changed hands, and New York remained an English colony until the Revolution.

New York Ceded to England

These changes of rule had caused so much confusion within the boundaries of the Duke of York's grant, that a new patent was issued in June, 1674. This embraced all the territory west of the Connecticut River to the eastern shore of the Delaware, including Long Island and a portion of Maine. Sir Edmund Andros was now appointed Governor of New York, and he received the formal surrender of the province in the month of October.

Rule of Governor Andros

Andros at that time was under forty years of age. He had shown himself to be a brave and able soldier. He possessed a fine education, and his personal character was without stain; but in his zeal to carry out the wishes of his royal master he proved himself one of the most oppressive of tyrants. He remained at the head of affairs for eight years, during which, in spite of his harshness, the colony prospered.

The right of representation was given to the people in 1683, and Colonel Thomas Dongan, a mild and enlightened Roman Catholic,

arrived in August as Governor of the province. He sympathized with the popular desire for greater freedom, and on the 17th of October, 1683, a legislative assembly met in session in Fort James, at New York. Seventeen representatives were present, and this first

LANDING OF THE ENGLISH AT NEW AMSTERDAM

The First General Assembly of the Province of New York, 1683

General Assembly of the Province of New York was in session three weeks, during which fourteen acts were passed, and assented to by the Governor and his council. The first and most important of these was "The Charter of Liberties and Privileges, granted by

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

His Royal Highness to the Inhabitants of New York and its Dependencies."

This date is memorable in the early history of New York, and the act named is an historical one. Its provisions secured religious freedom; the abolishment of martial law, and of the quartering of seamen and soldiers on the inhabitants against their will; and placed a restraint on the levying of taxes without the consent of the Assembly. It, moreover, gave to every freeholder and freeman the right to vote without hindrance, and guaranteed to all accused of wrong-doing the right of trial by a jury of twelve men.

The Charter of Liberties and Privileges

Naturally, high hopes were raised by this Charter of Liberties, but they were not fulfilled, for when the Duke of York,* in 1685, became King, he broke the pledges he had made. He ordered the levying of a direct tax, abolished the printing-press, and took steps to force the Papal religion upon the colony. Dongan, although himself a Roman Catholic, bravely opposed the bigoted monarch, won the gratitude of the citizens, and, in the spring of 1688, was ordered to surrender his government to Andros, whose authority extended over New York and New England. Andros left Francis Nicholson, a lieutenant of the army, to act as Lieutenant-Governor of New York.

GOVERNOR ANDROS

Fortunes of New York during English Revolution of 1688-89

News reached this country in April, 1689, of the dethronement of James II. and the accession of William and Mary. Andros and his political associates were seized in Boston and sent to England. A popular uprising took place in New York, where the government was in the hands of Nicholson, Councillor Frederick Phillips, Stephen van Courtlandt, and Nicholas Bayard. New York by this time had

*The Duke of York was the son of Charles I. and brother of Charles II. When the latter died, in 1685, the Duke of York succeeded to the English throne as James II. On his accession, he promised to maintain the established government, both in Church and State, a promise he immediately broke by his fanatical zeal for Roman Catholicism, which led him to fill the army with Roman Catholic officers, in violation of the Test Act, and to make an illegal use of the dispensing power. As a protest against these acts, his brief rule was chequered by two insurrections—Argyle's and Monmouth's—and terminated by the Revolution of 1688, which placed William and Mary on the throne.

grown to be a city of 5,000 population, with a variety of religions and nationalities. Since England was now, 1689, at war with France, it was decided to fortify the place against the French. The council showed so much hesitation in regard to this that Jacob Leisler (*lice'ler*), one of the militia captains, was placed at the head of affairs. There was some dissatisfaction with his appointment; but the rumor of an approaching French fleet strengthened his position. Six captains and four hundred men agreed in writing to hold the fort for the Prince of Orange, or whomsoever he should appoint Governor. News came that the sovereigns, William and Mary, confirmed temporarily the appointments of all Protestants holding office; but Nicholson was so distrusted that, in a furious pet, he sailed for England.

JAMES II.

Leisler and his friends were now masters of the city. He appointed his own collector, and so alarmed his associate councillors that they withdrew, and for more than a year Leisler was the supreme ruler of the town. Finally, Henry Sloughter (*slaw'ter*), one of the King's favorites, was made Governor of New York, but did not sail until a year after his appointment. Major Ingoldsby, one of his officers, arrived January 29, 1691, several weeks before Sloughter, and ordered Leisler to surrender the fort. When Leisler asked him for his authority, he was unable to produce any. The captain thereupon refused to recognize him, but offered every courtesy to Ingoldsby and his troops, even to the extent of providing them quarters in the fort. The offer was declined, and little happened until the 19th of March, when Governor Sloughter himself arrived.

Arrival of Governor Sloughter, 1691

Preparations were about to be made to attack the fort, when Leisler surrendered. The Governor ordered the trial of Leisler and his council, on the charge of murder and treason. Leisler and his son-in-law, Milborne, refused to appear until the grave question was settled whether the King's letter had not given him the formal authority which he had assumed. The question was turned over to the Governor and council, who decided that no such authority was granted by the King's letter. Leisler, Milborne, and six others, were found

guilty and sentenced to death. Following the advice of the judges, however, the Governor reprieved them till the wishes of the King could be learned.

Leisler's vigorous measures had made many bitter enemies, who now resorted to a base artifice to bring about his ruin. Failing after repeated efforts to persuade the Governor to sign the death-warrant

A TEMPERANCE LESSON

Hanging of Leisler and Milborne, 1691

they gave him a dinner at which he was plied with wine until he was intoxicated. In that condition, he was led to sign the death-warrant of Leisler and Milborne. When the Governor became sober, he found to his horror that the two had been executed.

Death of Governor Sloughter

Two months later, Governor Sloughter died so suddenly that many suspected that he was poisoned; but his death was probably due to excessive indulgence in liquor. Some years later, the English parliament reversed the attainder pronounced upon Leisler, and paid back all the expenses which his estate had borne. Every possible reparation was made, and the verdict of history is that he and Milborne were judicially murdered.

Benjamin Fletcher succeeded Sloughter. He had a violent temper, was avaricious, dishonest, and wholly lacking in tact. Throughout his administration of seven years, the embers of hatred caused by the execution of Leisler glowed and burned, and at one time threatened to break into the flames of civil war. So when the Earl of Bellomont became Governor in 1698, he found public affairs in a bad plight, but set to work with vigor to improve them. He won the confidence of all the people, and gave them a good administration.

Bellomont's Administration, 1698-1701

GOVERNOR BELLOMONT

The most notable incident connected with the rule of Bellomont was the career of William Kidd, the pirate. The crime of piracy grew to alarming proportions during the latter part of the seventeenth century. The English government tried to repress the evil but could not do so, and a company was formed to effect it. This association was composed of a number of English noblemen, among whom was Governor Bellomont. Kidd was known to be a skillful sailor and a daring fighter, and a galley which was fitted out for him, and named the *Adventure*, was placed under his command.

Kidd did fine service in destroying pirates, and after a time found himself in command of one hundred and fifty men, among whom were a number of as vicious criminals as could be found anywhere in the world. He now felt strong enough to attack the pirates of the Indian Ocean, and in February sailed for the coast of Madagascar. It was a long voyage, and on the way thither and for many months after, Kidd cruised back and forth without exchanging a shot with a pirate. Then he made up his mind to turn freebooter himself.

William Kidd, the Pirate

Thus it was that one of the most famous pirates in history began his evil career. The *Adventure* was fully armed and respected no flag. Kidd and his crew were after plunder, and it mattered little to them who became their victims. He roamed over the ocean, from India to the coasts of South America, among the West India Islands, and northward to the vicinity of his home. He was a cruel man, who, if tradition can be trusted, committed not a few murders, when there was neither pretext nor excuse for doing so. For one of these, he was at last brought to trial, and, as we shall see, suffered for his

crime, though the plea is made for him that his victim on that occasion was being punished as a mutineer.

Kidd's Reputed Buried Treasure

The belief has been general for many years that Kidd buried immense sums of money and treasure at points on the Atlantic coast, and especially on Long Island and in New Jersey. Hundreds of people have searched for these treasures, and no doubt hundreds more will do so. Within a mile of where the writer of this is penning these lines, a party of men, some years ago, almost dug away a small island in Shark River, under the belief that they had struck the spot where an enormous amount of treasure had been buried by the famous freebooter. They found a few pennies, which investigation proved had been placed there by some waggish neighbor, but nothing of any buried wealth, nor is any authentic instance known of money thus buried being found by other persons.

Kidd was foolhardy enough to sail into the port of Boston, under the belief that the wealth at his command would purchase his safety. The charge has been made that Governor Bellomont and others high in authority shared the ill-gotten gains of the pirate; but when orders came from England for Kidd's arrest they were carried out, and he was sent to England where he was executed in 1701.

One of the strange facts connected with the colonial history of our country is that the English monarchs appointed as Governor so many men who possessed no fitness for the high office. Some of them were but little above the grade of idiots, and many were rogues, who ought to have spent their lives in a penitentiary. Few of the colonies escaped this affliction. It is therefore not strange if, at times, we find some of these Governors lying under an uncomfortable and more or less justifiable suspicion.

Governor Hyde's Escapades

Sir Edward Hyde became Governor of New York after the death of the Earl of Bellomont, and ruled for seven years. He was one of the most despicable of men; so arrant a knave, indeed, that it may be doubted whether he would have been appointed had he not been the uncle of Queen Anne. What would be thought to-day of the Governor of a colony appearing repeatedly on the streets and at public assemblies in the dress of a woman? That is what Governor Hyde did, on the plea that it was proper for him to do so because the ruler of England was a woman. He was so despised that the Queen recalled him in 1708. His creditors put him in prison for debt, where he would have died, had not the death of his father made him Lord

Cornbury. The English law did not permit a peer of the realm to be arrested for debt, and so he escaped further humiliation.

Lord Lovelace succeeded Hyde, and did fairly well until his death, in May, 1709. He was followed successively by Robert Hunter, William Burnet, and John Montgomery. During the administration of the first named, Queen Anne's war occurred, an account of which will be given in another chapter. Hunter retired in 1719. His successor was a son of the famous Bishop of Salisbury. He cultivated friendly relations with the Indians, and was popular because of his geniality. He was transferred to the governorship of Massachusetts, in 1727. His administration was uneventful, and, Montgomery, dying in 1731, he was succeeded by the senior member of council, Rip Van Dam, until the arrival of Colonel William Cosby, in August, 1732.

The sole ambition of Cosby was to make all the money possible while the opportunity was in his hands. He demanded of Van Dam one-half the salary he had received while acting as Governor. Van Dam said he would consent to this if Cosby would pay him one-half the perquisites of his office from the time of his appointment until his arrival. Cosby refused the proposition and sued Van Dam in the Supreme Court, where the majority of the judges were the personal friends of the Governor. The council decided against Van Dam, and Chief Justice Morris decided against the Governor, who thereupon displaced the Chief Justice without consulting his council.

This high-handed course caused great indignation. In 1725, William Bradford had established the first public newspaper in New York. It was he who, in 1693, set up the first printing-house in the province. His paper was called *The New York Weekly Gazette*, and was the organ of the government. An apprentice and business partner with Bradford, named John Peter Zenger, was now induced to establish an opposition paper, through which the growing sentiment of democracy might find expression. Van Dam was the financial backer of *The New York Weekly Journal*, which made its appearance in November, 1733.

Early Metropolitan Newspapers

As might be supposed, the *Journal* hotly attacked the Governor and his supporters. It did so with biting vigor, and made serious charges which cut the deeper because they had a foundation in fact. The Governor and his friends affected to treat these attacks with indifference; but at the end of a year they were roused to action. By order of the Governor and council, Zenger's papers, containing the

exasperating articles, were publicly burned by the common hangman, and he was arrested and thrown into prison on the charge of libeling the government. The Grand Jury, however, refused to find an indictment, but Zenger was held by adopting another course, which was such a defiance of right and decency that the sympathy for Zenger and contempt for the Governor became universal.

The master-stroke of the accused was in engaging the venerable Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, as his counsel. He was, at the period, the most eminent lawyer in the colonies, and although past three-score and ten, and quite infirm, he willingly undertook without fee the defense of the persecuted journalist. He did this with masterly skill, and despite the fact that the judge charged strongly against Zenger, the jury were absent from the room for only a few minutes when they returned with a verdict of "not guilty." The decision was received with expressions of delight, and Hamilton was lifted upon the shoulders of some of the enthusiastic citizens and carried out of the court-room amid the hurrahs of the people. It was a notable victory for the liberty of the press.

The Liberty of the Press Vindicated

Governor Cosby was humiliated by his defeat, but there was no help for him. It was he who had made the attack and met with repulse. He died in March, 1736, and was succeeded by George Clark, the oldest member of the council, whose character was much the same as that of his predecessor. The most notable event of his administration was the "Negro Plot" of New York.

In the winter of 1740-41, a number of incendiary fires occurred in the city, and suspicion was turned against the Negro slaves, a large number of whom were then in the metropolis. In such cases, prejudice or mere hearsay is sufficient to implant in the public mind a suspicion of guilt. Although there was not the slightest evidence against the Negroes, a panic ensued, during which four white people and eighteen Negroes were hanged, and eleven of the latter burned to death at the stake. On the spot where the City Hall stands, three Negroes were burned at the same time, while many were transported to the West Indies before the senseless panic subsided. From this time forward until the French and Indian war, the events in New York are of little public importance.

Alleged Negro Plots, 1740-41

CHAPTER XI

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

[*Authorities*: The literature is naturally extensive that enters into details respecting the early colonization and methods of government among the Puritan Commonwealths of New England. Around this cradle of the liberties of the New World the American intellect has taken pride in weaving literary garlands, to add to its historic and religious luster. How richly this section of our country has been treated of and illustrated, the following important works bear ample witness: Palfrey's "History of New England," Ellis's "Puritan Age and Rule," Campbell's "The Puritan in Holland, England, and America," Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America," Bliss's "Colonial Times," Goodwin's "Pilgrim Republic," Fiske's "The Beginnings of New England," and Drake's "The Making of New England." Nor was New England settlement without contemporary pens to throw light upon its early life, as is evidenced in the publication of works such as Cotton Mather's "Magnalia," Winthrop's "New England," and Bradford's "History of the Plymouth Plantation."]

"Welcome Englishmen"

The English Puritans

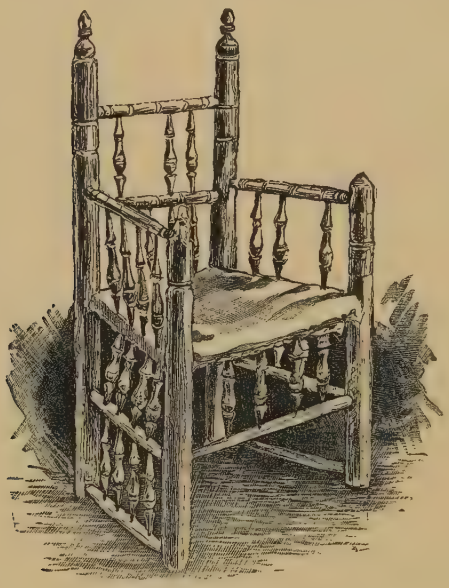
THERE are several words whose meaning is often confused by the students of history. We have often heard the names "Puritans," "Pilgrims," "Independents," "Separatists," and "Non-conformists," used as if they referred to the same persons, but this use is not strictly correct.

During the sixteenth century a marked difference of views arose among the members of the Church of England, or, as it is sometimes termed, the Episcopal Church. A large number of that ecclesiastical body were dissatisfied because some of the ceremonies and practices of the Roman Catholic faith were retained, and they insisted that all should be removed,—in other words, that the Church should be purified of them. More than one clergyman refused to conform to the requirements of the new order of things. These people were called "Non-conformists," and in derision were styled "Puritans." A Puritan was a member of the Church of

England who demanded and strove for certain changes in public worship, but did not withdraw from the Church.

The Sects

But there were others who were so dissatisfied that they left the Church and worshiped apart. These persons were known as "Independents," or "Separatists," and, like the Puritans, of course were Non-conformists. It may be well, perhaps, to bear in mind, that while the Puritans, Non-conformists, Separatists, and Independents held to the same belief, the first two named stayed within the Church, while the Independents or Separatists withdrew from it.



ELDER BREWSTER'S CHAIR

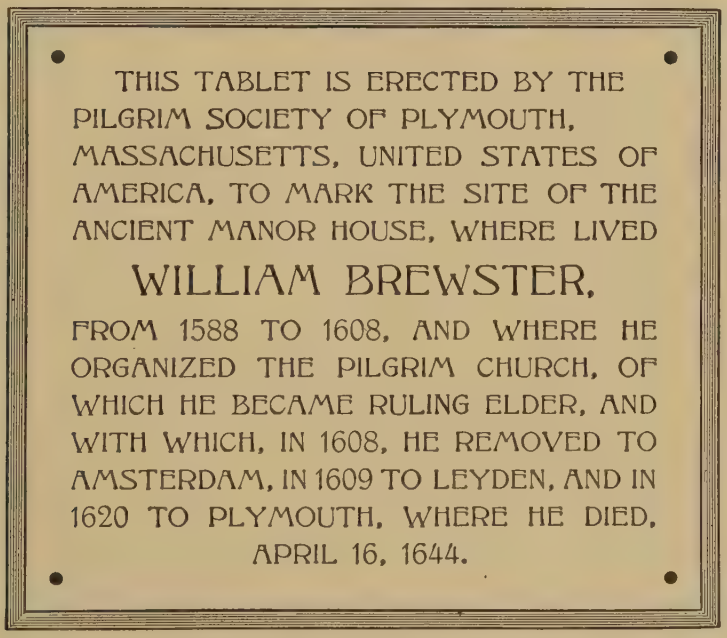
These people were cruelly persecuted because of their faith; but they bore their sufferings meekly, believing that when James came to the throne of England he would treat them with justice. In some cases, when the persecution was too great to be borne, the Independents emigrated to Holland, where religious freedom existed for all.

King James I

A wretched disappointment came to the sufferers when Queen Elizabeth died and James I. became King. One of England's best historians has written of this monarch: "He was cunning, covetous, wasteful, idle, drunken, greedy, dirty, cowardly, a great swearer, and the most conceited man on earth." What good could be expected from such a ruler? Yet the religious discussions, which arose partly out of James's assumption of "Divine Right" to rule, led to the appointment of a learned commission of profound scholars to make the translation of the Bible, since almost exclusively used throughout the Protestant world until the late Revised Version appeared.

Meanwhile the Separatists who had emigrated to Holland were steadily increasing in number through the accessions of their persecuted brethren. They united themselves at Leyden, in Holland, where their upright and godly lives won the respect of their Dutch

neighbors. The eloquent John Robinson was their pastor, and William Brewster their chief elder. Although freed from persecution, they could not feel contented, surrounded as they were by those who spoke another tongue, and whose customs and manner of living were so different from their own. They longed to go elsewhere, and nothing was more natural, therefore, than that their hearts should go out in longing to the New World. They discussed the project of removing thither, and strove to consider and duly weigh every difficulty


THIS TABLET IS ERECTED BY THE
PILGRIM SOCIETY OF PLYMOUTH,
MASSACHUSETTS, UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA, TO MARK THE SITE OF THE
ANCIENT MANOR HOUSE, WHERE LIVED
WILLIAM BREWSTER,
FROM 1588 TO 1608, AND WHERE HE
ORGANIZED THE PILGRIM CHURCH, OF
WHICH HE BECAME RULING ELDER, AND
WITH WHICH, IN 1608, HE REMOVED TO
AMSTERDAM, IN 1609 TO LEYDEN, AND IN
1620 TO PLYMOUTH, WHERE HE DIED,
APRIL 16, 1644.

TABLET ERECTED AT SCROOBY, NOTTS*

which they were likely to have to face. It was the subject of many prayers, with the decision that it was the will of God that they should emigrate to America.

The Council of Plymouth received its charter in 1620, thereby

*The Brewster Tablet.—An interesting memorial was, in the summer of 1895, erected at Scrooby, Nottinghamshire, England, by the Pilgrim Society of Plymouth, Mass., to mark the site of the English home of William Brewster the founder and one of the ruling elders of the Pilgrim Church of New England. Brewster, while in England, was one of the illustrious sufferers for conscience' sake, and after his liberation from jail he removed to Holland, then to the New World in the *Mayflower*. A transcript of the commemorating tablet, which is affixed to a farmhouse at Scrooby, on the site of Brewster's ancient manor-house, is shown here.

SIGNING THE COMPACT ON THE "MAYFLOWER"

King James and the Puritans

superseding the original Plymouth Company, but while the negotiation was under way, two agents of the Leyden congregation visited England, with the request that they should be allowed to settle within the territory of the Plymouth Company, and asking a guarantee of religious freedom from the King. The King refused a written promise, but assured them that they should not be disturbed so long as they gave no public offense. His royal word, as we know, was worthless; but since nothing better could be gained, the exiles decided to take the risk.

A joint-stock association, with a number of London merchants, was formed. By its terms all profits were to be reserved for seven years, at the end of which period everything was to be divided proportionately among the shareholders. Those who were too poor to pay cash for their passage were to pay the debt in the form of labor or other services.

The Pilgrims—as they soon came to be called, because of their wanderings—showed prudence and worldly wisdom in all the steps of this important movement. The negotiations occupied several years, and when completed, it was arranged that "the youngest and strongest" members should go to America, under the spiritual charge of Elder Brewster, and that John Robinson, a zealous clergyman, and the remainder, should follow a year later, provided the reports from the other side of the Atlantic were favorable. The *Mayflower*, of one hundred and eighty tons burden, and the *Speedwell*, of sixty tons, were bought, the latter in Holland, to carry the members of the congregation that could go, to England, where the *Mayflower* was moored in the Thames, taking in its cargo of stores for the voyage. The parting between the friends and co-religionists was of a solemn and impressive nature.

Sailing of the "Mayflower" Sept. 6, 1620

The two ships soon set out, but the *Speedwell* was found to be leaky and unseaworthy. Her passengers were, however, transferred to the *Mayflower*, while the *Speedwell* remained behind at London. Early in September, 1620, the *Mayflower* sailed from Plymouth, carrying, besides her crew, over one hundred persons with whom to found a colony in the new world.

The voyage of the *Mayflower* was in its issue one of the most noted undertakings in history. For over two months the little vessel was tossed about on the stormy Atlantic, ofttimes in such danger that a number urged turning about, as did the mutinous mariners of Co-

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lumbus; but the majority were stout-hearted, and had fully "counted the cost," so the vessel kept on. Finally, on the 9th of November, the low, sandy peninsula of Cape Cod was sighted, and all gave thanks to God. As we can well understand, the principal theme on shipboard was the new country, and what they all expected to do when they reached it. Naturally, there was some difference of opinion as to the best form of government to be adopted, and again the Pilgrims showed their wisdom by drawing up the following instrument in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, which was signed by the forty-one adult male emigrants:

Covenant for the Good Government of the Colony

"In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are here underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc., having undertaken, for the glory of God, and advancement of the Christian faith, and honor of our King and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern parts of Virginia, do, by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation; and in furtherance of the ends aforesaid, and by virtue hereof to enact, constitute, and frame just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony; unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the year of the reign of our sovereign lord, King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth, Anno Domini 1620."

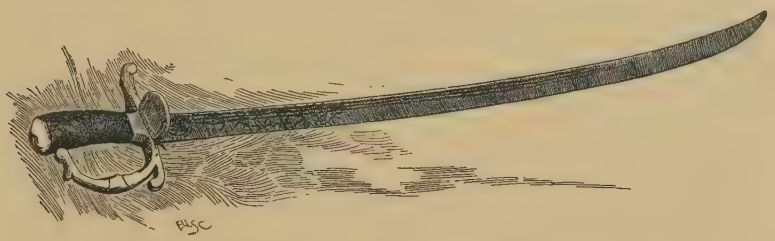
Governor Carver and Miles Standish

On the voyage across there had been one death and one birth, so that the original number remained the same. John Carver was chosen Governor for the first year, and in doubt whether the best spot had been selected for settlement, Captain Miles Standish and a number of men were sent ashore to spy out the country.

It was no easy task. The weather was intensely cold, and the snow was driven in their faces by the furious wind as the explorers tramped through the deep sand. Standish was a little fellow, with "a long yellow beard," but as full of sturdy heroism and integrity as was John Smith, of Virginia. He was a soldier by profession, and though not a member of the Independent Church, he liked the sim-

ple, honest ways of the Pilgrims, and gladly went with them to America.

The party had not tramped far when they caught sight of a number of Indians curiously watching them from a distance. Standish beckoned them to approach, but the white men whom they had met before were kidnapers and the warriors discreetly kept at a distance.



MILES STANDISH'S SWORD

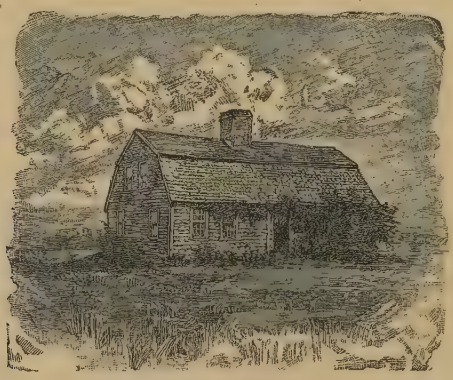
While wandering along the beach an iron utensil was found, which must have belonged to some earlier visitors, since the Indians knew nothing about the manufacture of iron. Near-by, the appearance of the ground showed that something had been buried, and, upon digging down, several bushels of Indian corn were discovered where the owners had hidden it. The supply was most welcome to the Pilgrims, and Standish took it all, but it was far from his thoughts to steal it. He would have been glad to pay for it, then and there, but that was impossible, for the Indians could not be induced to come near. Six months later, however, Standish met the owners, and honestly paid them in full.

More than a month was spent in searching for the right locality for settlement, which at last was found. On Monday, December 11, (Old Style, or December 21, New Style), Miles Standish and a few companions went ashore, the remainder on the *Mayflower* following a couple of weeks later. They began building a number of cabins and a storehouse, enclosing all with strong, high palisades

POT AND PLATTER OF MILES STANDISH

Landing of the Pilgrims, Dec. 21, 1620

as a protection against Indians and wild beasts, and using oiled paper for glass in the windows. The ground was staked off, and the company divided into nineteen families. Thus were laid the foundations of the first permanent settlement in New England, which was named Plymouth, in remembrance of the port from which they sailed in England.

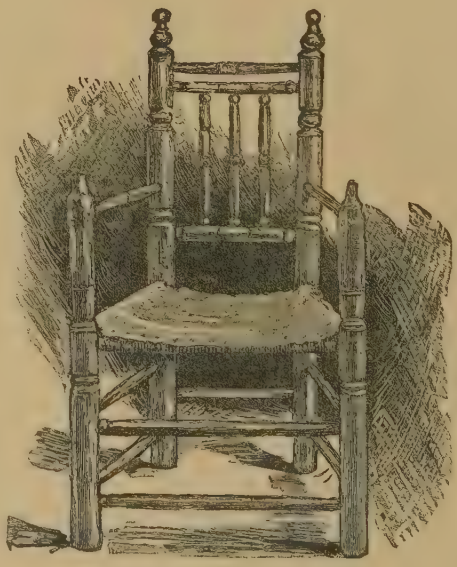


MILES STANDISH'S HOUSE

It will be borne in mind that at this time the Jamestown colony in Virginia was thirteen years old, and that the Dutch had erected several cabins and built a fort on Manhattan Island seven years before the arrival of the Pilgrims, while the weak Spanish colony at St. Augustine, in Florida, was more than half a century old.

It was fortunate that the New England pioneers were rugged, strong, and inspired by an unshakable faith in their mission in the New World; for they were soon tested to the utmost extent of human endurance. Their food was scant, and not all of it wholesome; they had no delicacies, and the weather was severe, even for New England, where the winters are sometimes of an arctic severity. A number of the Pilgrims were compelled to stay on board the *Mayflower*, where the food and accommodations were so poor that sickness soon showed itself. When spring came, ailments of the lungs, and kindred diseases, had carried off forty-

Sufferings of the Plymouth Colonists



GOVERNOR CARVER'S CHAIR

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THE LANDING OF MILES STANDISH

four of their number. At one time, indeed, there were only seven well persons in the whole company. Governor Carver's son was among the first victims, and the Governor himself died in April, his sorrowing wife soon following him to the grave. William Bradford was chosen Governor, and held the office for a number of years. To him, more perhaps than to any other human instrument, were due the sterling character and final success of the Plymouth colony.

Governor William Bradford

VISIT OF SAMOSET

The settlers held the savages in great dread, and they were, therefore, delighted one day, in early spring, when a fine-looking Indian stalked out of the woods, and, with his dusky face aglow, repeated several times, in a distinct voice, "Welcome, Englishmen! welcome!" The astonished white men received him cordially, and he showed a wish to be friendly. His name was Samoset, and he had picked up a few words of English from some fishermen on the coast of Maine. He belonged to the Wampanoag tribe of Indians, and was treated so kindly that a few days later he came back with his chief, Massasoit,

Visit of Massasoit and Samoset, 1621

whose reception was of the most generous nature, and so won his good-will, that he made a treaty of peace with the whites, which was not broken for more than a generation.

As the summer advanced, the condition of the colonists brightened. Their health mended, the land yielded to cultivation, the forest abounded with game, and fish were plentiful in the streams. The *Mayflower*, which had returned to England shortly before Governor Carver died, brought over more immigrants. Friendly relations with most of the Indians were maintained, though the watchful Standish knew that many of them could not be trusted. The Narragansetts were the most hostile tribe, and numbered several thousand warriors. They had looked with sullen faces upon the coming of the white men. They refused to sign a treaty of peace with them, and soon prepared to take the war-path.

The Message of Canonicus and the Retort, 1622

To show their contempt of the intruders, Canonicus, the Narragansett chief, sent Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows inclosed in a rattlesnake skin. This so plainly meant a declaration of war that the doughty Governor did not for a moment mistake its purport. He immediately filled the snake-skin with powder and balls and sent it back to the chief, who read its message aright: "Powder and ball are what we will give you; come on!" But Canonicus was too frightened to accept the challenge, and the colonists were not molested for some time.

But the most certain of all events was that the whites very soon would give the savages good cause for enmity. A rich but dissatisfied member of the Plymouth Company sent over sixty unmarried men, to plant a settlement at Weymouth, on the shores of Massachusetts Bay. They were idle, dissipated, and vicious; and, too lazy to work themselves, began plundering the neighboring Indians. This incensed the savages, who formed a scheme to kill, not only the guilty, but all the white people in the country.

Miles Standish Saves the Weymouth Settlement, 1623

The plot was laid as carefully as was that of Opechankano in Virginia about the same time, and would have succeeded had not, as in that case, warning been given by a friendly Indian. It was Massasoit who revealed the peril to the settlers in Massachusetts, and he took care to do it in time. Miles Standish was therefore sent with eight soldiers to protect the imperiled Englishmen at Weymouth. A brisk fight followed, and a chief and several of his warriors were killed. Standish carried the head of the chief on a pole to Ply-

mouth, where it was displayed on the palisades of the fort. When the devout Robinson at Leyden received news of the affair, he expressed his gratitude to God, but at the same time spoke of his regret that Standish had forgotten to convert some of the Indians before shooting them.

Although the Weymouth colony was saved, it soon fell apart, and the worst members returned to England. The plan of toiling and holding all things in common did not work satisfactorily, and in 1623 the experiment was tried of allotting a certain area of land to each settler. The result was so excellent, that, as in Virginia, the old method was never used again.

Some of the troubles endured by the first settlers in Massachusetts were of a sectarian character. They longed to bring over Mr. Robinson, their Leyden pastor. He was regarded as the head of the Nonconformist movement, even though he remained in Holland. To please the Crown, and in the hope of securing gain, the Plymouth Company opposed the removal of Mr. Robinson to America, and that good man never saw the beloved church that had been planted on the other side of the Atlantic. With a view to bringing the Pilgrims under the control of the Church of England, John Lyford, a hypocritical preacher, was sent to the colony by the intriguers. He found an ally in John Oldham, a member of the community who had a "grievance." The real business of the two was suspected, and Bradford, Brewster, and Winslow soon brought home the proof to the evil men, who confessed. Oldham was banished, but Lyford fairly bellowed his penitence and was allowed to stay. He was soon detected at his tricks again, and was deposed from the ministry and sent away from Plymouth, returning to the colony some years later to be, however, pardoned again.

Lyford and Oldham

Reverend John White, of Trinity Church, Dorchester, England, sought to plant a fishing colony at Cape Ann, on the present site of Gloucester, but the attempt was a failure. Subsequently, however, a company was formed, in 1628, and a tract of land was purchased, which extended from three miles north of the Merrimac River to three miles south of the Charles River. The westward boundary of the tract, as was the rule, was made the Pacific Ocean. What a long ribbon of land that would have been, could it have been extended to its boundary, three thousand miles away!

In the summer of the year named, the Company sent a number of

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immigrants to make a settlement in their territory. Among them was John Endicott, who was commissioned Governor, or general manager, of the colony. It is probable that at that time there were a few other scattered settlements in New England, though there is no trustworthy record of them.

Endicott was one of the strictest of Puritans. He named the new settlement Salem, and it is said that once he ordered a May-pole cut down, because it savored of "godless amusements." Other persons, some of whom were rich and influential, joined the company, and in March, 1629, they were granted a royal charter, creating them a corporation, with the name of "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England." The King viewed the enterprise as a trading one, and yielded all jurisdiction. The government was invested in a governor, a deputy, and eighteen assistants or magistrates, elected annually by the stockholders of the company. The freemen were to meet in general assembly no fewer than four times a year, in order to legislate for the colony. It should be remembered that the Massachusetts Bay Colony was founded by Puritans, while that at Plymouth was composed of Independents.

Formation of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1629

GOVERNOR JOHN WINTHROP

John Winthrop was now chosen Governor. He was a wealthy lawyer, of the highest social position, and a learned and courtly man. He sacrificed much in order to become a pioneer in one of the grandest movements for settlement in the New World. Associated with him were many persons of prominence, and several who were notable for their wealth. It may be said that the Massachusetts Bay Colony was launched with prospects that guaranteed its success from the first.

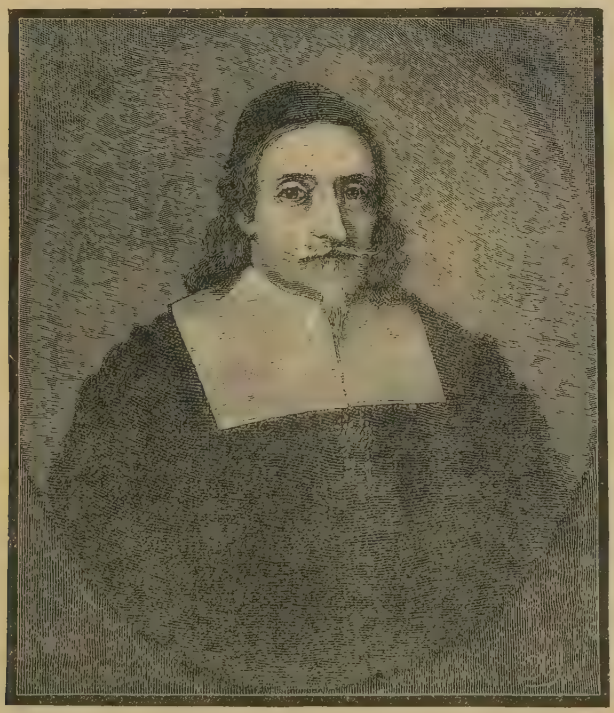
Governor Winthrop

Winthrop and his companions, consisting of three hundred families, arrived at Salem, June 12, 1630. That which met his eyes was not of an encouraging character, for before him was neither a church nor a town. A somewhat pretentious house awaited his occupancy, while the other dwellings consisted of a few miserable hovels. Disease had been busy, and soon attacked the newcomers, carrying off by autumn two hundred out of the one thousand arrivals. The lack of food became so distressing that Governor Winthrop ap-

plied to New Plymouth for help, and the response was prompt and generous. In February, 1631, a ship arrived from England with an abundance of stores, and joy and plenty reigned. Governor Winthrop expressed the feelings of the majority of his associates, when he wrote to his wife across the ocean that he had never enjoyed more peace and contentment of mind than in Massachusetts.

Founding of Charlestown and other Localities

The devout Governor did not content himself with settling down at Salem. Some of his people began putting up huts at Charlestown,



GOVERNOR JOHN ENDICOTT

where several had already been erected by Endicott's people. Others located at Roxbury, Cambridge, Watertown, and Dorchester.

Founding of Boston, 1630

Towards the close of 1630, a party from Charlestown settled on the present site of Boston. The Indians called the peninsula Shawmut, which means "the place of many springs." It will be found that this name, like that of Samoset, Massasoit, and other noted Indians, who had to do with the early history of Massachusetts, has since been treasured. Three hills composed the peninsula, and for a time

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it was called Trimountain, but the name Boston was given in remembrance of the native town of many of the immigrants from Lincolnshire. A large number of people arrived during the season, and the place rapidly increased in population. By 1634, there were eight separate settlements in Massachusetts, and the colony advanced more rapidly than did that at Plymouth. Winthrop was re-elected Governor, and disappointed the hopes of no one, for his wisdom was as notable as his personal character was exalted. He cultivated friendship with the Indians, as did Bradford at Plymouth; and many a time have the chiefs and sachems from tribes hundreds of miles distant dined at his table. The red men knew him as a just person, who always spoke with a "single tongue."

Friendship with the Indians

Winthrop was a good neighbor, too, to the other colonies. Traveling in those times could not be done by stages any more than by railway. Vessels passed up and down the coast; but a journey inland was of necessity made on foot. Winthrop, who was in rugged health and in the prime of life, walked more than once from Boston to Plymouth, to call upon Governor Bradford, and he sent a request to the authorities of New Netherland to meet him in a friendly talk over the settlement of a part of the Connecticut valley.

Although immigration to Massachusetts lagged for a time, it soon received a powerful impetus from the intense persecution of the Puritans in England. In 1635, more than three thousand settlers, including many men of wealth and distinction, came to Massachusetts. The government and discipline at Plymouth, and at Massachusetts (as Winthrop's Massachusetts Bay Colony was called), were very rigid. In the latter, no one could be an officer of the government who was not a member of some church. This union of church and state caused much dissatisfaction, which was not quieted until the union was dissolved, in 1665.

The First Person Executed at Plymouth, 1630

It is worthy of note that the first person hanged at Plymouth was one of the *Mayflower's* passengers. His name was John Billinton, and he had been a troublesome person from the beginning. The first offense in the colony was committed by him in 1621. He resisted the command of the captain with so violent a manner and speech, that he was punished by having his neck and heels tied together. Governor Bradford, in his "History of Plymouth Plantation" thus refers to the melancholy circumstance of his execution:

"This year (1630) John Billinton, ye elder (one that came over

with ye first), was arrained, and both by grand and petie jurie found guilty of willful murder, by plaine and notorious evidence. And was for the same accordingly executed. This, as it was ye first execution amongst them, so was it a matter of great sadnes unto them. They used all due means about his triale, and tooke ye advice of Mr. Winthrop and others ye ablest gentle-men in ye Bay of ye Massachusetts, that were then new-ly come over, who concurred with them yt he ought to dye, and ye land to be purged from blood. He and some of his had been often punished for miscariages before, being one of ye profanest families amongst them. They came from London, and I know not by what friends shufled into their company. His facte was, that he way-laid a yong-man, one John New-comin (about a former quarele), and shote him with a gune, whereof he dyed."

The ancient Hubbard, in his "History of New England," says: "The murtherer expected that, either for want of power to execute for capital offenses, or for want of people to increase the plantations, he (Billinton) should have his life spared; but justice otherwise determined, and rewarded him, the first murtherer of his neighbour there, with the deserved punishment of death for a warning."

Advent of Roger Williams

The ship *Lion* arrived at Boston, early in the year 1631, with additions to the colony. Among the latter were Roger Williams and his wife. Williams was a Welsh Puritan, and was born about the beginning of the seventeenth century. He was eloquent and able, and, like many a pioneer of thought, was in advance of his times. He was liked at first, and was elected teacher in the church at Boston. He, however, declined the honor, it is said because the church people would not publicly repent for having communion with the Church of England. Williams declared further that conscience should be supreme, and that the magistrates had no right to inflict punishment for Sabbath desecration, or for setting at defiance any one of the first four commandments. He violently opposed the union of church and state, and it was inevitable that he should give offense in Boston. So he withdrew to Salem, where he was chosen minister.

Williams became more zealous than ever in asserting his peculiar views. He maintained with vehemence that the King had no right to grant any land in America until after paying the Indians, the rightful owners, for the same; nor had the civil power, he said, moral warrant for interfering with a person's religious faith. The young preacher went to the extreme in urging his views, and in pleading for

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tolerance became intolerant himself. His insistence that no settler had a right to his land until after payment to the aboriginal owners touched the Puritans in the most sensitive spot. The Governor and his assistants carefully read the essay which Williams wrote respecting the Indian titles, and were so offended that they ordered him to appear at the next general court for censure. He obeyed, and explained that the essay was written for the private reading of the Governor of Plymouth, and the matter was dropped for a while.

Banishment of Williams, 1635

But a man like Williams is irrepressible, and after a time the authorities lost patience with him. Sentence of banishment was pronounced against him in 1635, in the following words: "It is therefore ordered that the said Mr. Williams shall depart out of this jurisdiction within six weeks now next ensuing, which, if he neglect to perform, it shall be lawful for the Governor and two of the magistrates to send him to some place out of this jurisdiction, not to return any more without license from the court."

The friends of Williams were indignant. Edward Winslow was then Governor of Plymouth and strongly sympathized with him, while a number of men in the two colonies declared that, if the preacher were banished, they would become his companions in exile. The magistrates thought to calm the excitement by informing Williams that he could stay in Salem until the following spring. Thereupon Williams preached his unwelcome doctrines with greater persistence than ever. There is reason to suspect that he had formed a plan for the founding of a new colony in the wilderness, so that the sentence of banishment was not held in special dread. Be that as it may, the preacher's course became so intolerable that Governor Haynes determined to send him back to England. Williams refused to appear before the magistrates at Boston, and they sent a pinnace to Salem with a warrant to Captain Underhill to capture and put him on board a vessel about to sail for the motherland.

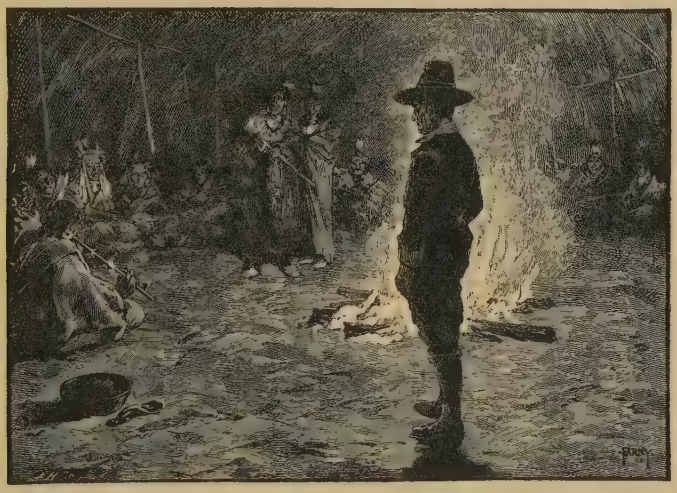
Williams to be Deported

Captain Underhill set out to obey the order; but upon reaching Salem he discovered that some one had warned Williams, and he had fled. This "friend in need" was no less a person than ex-Governor Winthrop, who was strongly attached to Williams. With the warning secretly sent, Williams was at the same time counselled to enter the Narragansett country and throw himself upon the generosity of the Indians, many of whom knew and liked the honest preacher.

Williams accepted this advice. On a wintry night, when the

ground was covered with snow, he kissed his wife and two children good-bye, and strode off in the darkness, staff in hand, a scrip over his shoulders, and with the cutting wind moaning through the leafless branches overhead. Tramping sturdily forward, the exile made his way to the lodge of the venerable chief Massasoit, who welcomed him warmly, and gave him a large tract of land on the Seekonk River. Canonicus, the chieftain who, years before, had sent the bundle of arrows, wrapped about with rattlesnake skin, to Governor Bradford, was equally cordial, and remained the devoted friend of the exile.

Williams goes into Exile



ROGER WILLIAMS IN EXILE

With the coming of spring, Williams and five other persons from Salem, who had joined him, began building a house; but a gentle reminder came from Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, that they were within the boundary of the Plymouth grant, adding that, to avoid all possible trouble, it would be well to move a little farther west, where they would be outside of both domains. So Williams and his friends pursued their course down the Seekonk into an expansion of the stream, where they landed on what is still known as "Roger Williams's Rock," and began the settlement, in the summer of 1636, of a town which, in acknowledgment of God's goodness, was named Providence.

First Settlement in Rhode Island by Roger Williams, at Providence, 1636

This city, which in time became one of the most important in New England, was not the first settlement in the region south of Massa-

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chusetts. In 1633, the Dutch erected Fort Good Hope, near the present city of Hartford, and the whole of the valley was claimed by the Dutch West India Company. In the autumn of the same year, the Plymouth authorities sent William Holmes by sea to Connecticut to found a settlement. The Dutch threatened to fire upon him, if he attempted to pass the post. Holmes showed his commission from the Governor, and said he must go on, with or without the consent of the fort commandant. Permission was given him, and he put together the framework of a house which he had brought with him, on the site of the town of Windsor, six miles above the fort. The following year, Governor Van Twiller sent a force from New Amsterdam to drive out the intruders; but they held fast, and soon established a profitable trade with the Indians.

First Settlement in Connecticut

This was the first incident in the founding of Connecticut by emigrants from Massachusetts. They went from Dorchester, Newtown (now Cambridge), Roxbury, and other towns, Wethersfield being founded in the winter of 1635. In the autumn of this year, John Winthrop, the younger son of Governor Winthrop, arrived with a commission as Governor of Connecticut, under the patent of Lord Say-and-Seal, Lord Brooke, John Pym, John Hampden, and others.

Young Winthrop, to use a common expression, "meant business." It was his purpose to build a fort at the entrance to the river, but before he could carry out his intention, a Dutch vessel arrived on the same mission. To their amazement, the Dutchmen found a battery of two cannon and a number of armed men awaiting to dispute their landing. The captain of the ship quietly surveyed the ground, and then turned about and set sail again for New Amsterdam. Winthrop named the place Saybrook, in honor of Lords Say and Brooke, and there built a stronghold. The Dutch still held the post at Good Hope, which was their only possession in that region.

The emigration from Massachusetts was so rapid that Connecticut had a population of nearly three thousand in 1635. In the following June, the whole church at Newtown was removed thither, under charge of the ministers, Thomas Hooker and Samuel Stone. The settlement which they founded was named Hartford, in compliment to Mr. Stone, who was a native of Hertford, England. Springfield was planted a little way up the river, and Windsor and Wethersfield were thus severally named by the pioneers who had selected those sites.

Founding of Hartford, 1635-1636

ROGER WILLIAMS OPPOSING THE PEQUOD EMISSARIES

While the settlement of Connecticut was progressing in this vigorous fashion, Roger Williams, over in Rhode Island, was not idle. The freedom of conscience enjoyed at Providence drew many people thither from Boston and other towns in Massachusetts. Williams reserved no political power to himself, but seemed to be actuated solely by the desire to make happy all those around him. He was strenuous in asserting his own views (and it cannot by any means be claimed that all of them were wise); but he and his associates resolutely refrained from interfering with the rights of others. His beloved wife had, ere this, joined him in his wilderness home, and she gladly shared all his toils and trials.

It was impossible for a man with the disposition of Williams to feel any resentment towards Massachusetts because of the harsh treatment he had received at her hands. He had many devoted friends among her people, and, besides, all were his "brothers"; so, when he learned that the Pequod Indians were using their utmost endeavor to persuade the powerful Narragansett tribe to join them in a war against the whites, he did not hesitate as to his course. He made haste to warn Governor Winthrop of the danger, and sent him a map of the country, based on descriptions received from the Indians. Winthrop replied with deep gratitude, and urged Williams to exert his influence to keep the Narragansetts from joining the Pequods in the contemplated war.

Roger Williams Prevents the Narragansetts from Joining the Pequods in a War upon the Settlements

Williams needed no urging in the matter. It was a long way to the lodge of Canonicus; but leaping into a canoe, he paddled through a storm across Narragansett Bay to the residence of the chieftain, who had but to say the word that would let loose five thousand warriors to spread desolation and death through the Connecticut valley. The preacher knew that he was always welcome; and he strode into the royal wigwam without waiting for an invitation.

But his heart sank when he saw the Pequod messengers from Sassacus, their chief, engaged in appealing to Canonicus; for the expression on the chieftain's face showed that he was hesitating, if he was not already inclined to do as they begged him. The visitor understood the words spoken, and saw the scowls of the Pequods, when they turned towards him, well aware of his errand. But for the restraining presence of Canonicus, they would have, then and there, slain him. It was a crucial test of his nerve; but, without a moment's hesitation, Williams advanced to greet his old friend, and with all the

From the Original Drawing by Charles Kendrick

ROGER WILLIAMS PLEADING WITH CANONICUS

eloquence he could command urged him to turn a deaf ear to those that were inducing him to do evil.

The question was considered so important by Canonicus that he took many days to come to a decision. No other white man would have dared to attempt what Williams then did, nor would the Narragansett chieftain have permitted it. He preferred that the preacher should keep away, but he held him in too high an estimation to deny him welcome; and so he listened to all that the good man had to say, even though it was said many times, as was the case with the Pequods.

During those days and nights they as well as Williams were the guests of Canonicus. The preacher, in recalling the incident afterwards, said that he expected to be roused in the night with the Pequod warriors at his throat. Finally he won his great victory; the chieftain told the messengers that he had decided not to go on the war path against the whites. The chagrined warriors departed, and afterwards bent their energies to persuading the Mohicans to join them, but they, too, refused. Then the Pequods determined to undertake the horrid work alone.

The Pequod War, 1637

The Indians followed the usual method of attacking exposed cabins, shooting down men at work in the fields, and slaying their victims when all the chances were against the latter. Many persons were taken prisoner and put to torture. Two-score of the colonists were slain, when the Pequods became so rash as to attack Wethersfield, where they killed seven men, a woman and a child, and almost succeeded in getting possession of the settlement. One thousand hostiles were on the war-path, and the danger to the Connecticut settlements was so imminent that they appealed to Plymouth and Massachusetts for aid.

The response was prompt. About a hundred soldiers, under the command of Captain John Mason, were forthwith sent to Connecticut. A band of Mohicans, under the famous Uncas, joined the soldiers, but proved of little value. Captain John Underhill, in charge of the Connecticut troops (which numbered about the same as those sent from Massachusetts and Plymouth), united with Mason and, after a conference, it was decided to attack the Pequods in the rear, by passing through the territory of the Narragansetts.

Three pinnaces, with the troops on board, sailed eastward along the coast, and entered Narragansett Bay, May 20, as night was closing

in. The following day, being the Sabbath, was spent in religious devotions, and a storm arising, it delayed for several days the landing of the force. A band of Narragansetts, at Mason's request, now joined him; but when the crisis came, they proved as valueless as the Mohicans. A fortunate mistake of the Pequods greatly helped the white men. The scouts of the enemy had been watching the vessels, as they moved along the coast. After the soldiers disembarked, these vessels sailed back, noting which the Pequods supposed that the armed forces were on board, and reported to their chiefs that the expedition had been abandoned.

Plan of Attack on Peqoud Stronghold

Captain Mason timed his advance so as to reach the Pequod stronghold at the close of day, on the 25th. The post, which was a strong one, stood on elevated ground on the banks of the Mystic. It was guarded by palisades inclosing fully an acre of ground. These palisades, or stakes, were high and massive, with pointed tops, and were driven deeply into the earth, so close together that no one could force an entrance between any two of the stakes. Within the inclosure were seventy wigwams, containing most of the men, women, and children of the Pequod tribe, under the command of their dreaded chieftain Sassacus.

Keeping the soldiers carefully out of sight, Captain Mason sent out his scouts to reconnoitre. They returned with the information that the stronghold had two entrances opposite each other, each being guarded by only a few bushes. The Pequods had no suspicion of danger, and it was decided to rush through these openings at the same instant. This method of fighting was new, and anything but agreeable to the Indian allies of the New Englanders. It savored too much of personal danger to suit them. They therefore sneaked off into the woods, and left the pale-faces to conduct matters themselves, and in their own way.

Destruction of the Pequods, 1637

Despite the stealthy approach of the soldiers, it was not yet daylight on the morning of the 26th when a dog near the eastern entrance detected the shadowy figures moving among the trees, and began barking. The red men, who were half asleep, started up, and shouted that the English were upon them. Captain Mason, seeing that not a moment was to be lost, dashed through the entrance, and at once engaged in a hand-to-hand encounter until his soldiers joined him. Underhill, on the other flank, heard the sounds, and, knowing what they meant, led the attack through the entrance there also.

The Pequods were resolute fighters, and, although caught at great disadvantage, made such a desperate resistance that the assailants were forced back. A total repulse meant the massacre of all, and fearful that that was about to take place, Mason caught up a burning ember, fanned it into a blaze, and hurled it among the wigwams. The dry bark which covered them instantly broke into a flame which spread rapidly. Underhill, from his side, pursued the same tactics, and within a few minutes the whole inclosure became a roaring con-

DESTRUCTION OF THE PEQUODS

flagration. The soldiers ran outside, and with loaded guns awaited the appearance of the Pequods, who had the choice of following them or being burned within the inclosure.

A Cruel Slaughter

The savages themselves were not more cruel than were the white men to the Pequods caught in this fiery trap. No warrior, squaw, or papoose was allowed to live. Nearly a thousand were slain, and Captain Mason gave thanks for the privilege of destroying them. Only two of the whites were killed, though a number were wounded. Sassacus was not with his doomed warriors, but in another strong-

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

hold on the Thames, near the spot where the vessels were to take the white men on board again. While marching thither, the soldiers were attacked by three hundred more Pequods, but Mason got in the rear of his enemies and reached the boats without loss.

The war against this tribe was pressed without mercy. The country was scoured from end to end, and a resisting Pequod was never spared. Wigwams and cornfields were laid waste, and the pursuit kept up until the harried fugitives took refuge in a swamp near Fairfield. When the English appeared, the remaining Pequods surrendered, excepting Sassacus, and several of his friends, who escaped to the Mohawks. Of those who submitted, some were sent to the Bermudas, others were enslaved in Connecticut and Massachusetts, while the remainder were absorbed by neighboring tribes. Thus the Pequod tribe, in punishment for its attack upon the settlements, was utterly destroyed.* For a number of years, New England was safe against all disturbance from the Indians.

Extermination

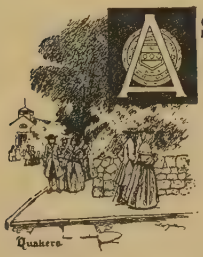
*It is well that the young reader, who may take pride in the prowess of the early settlers of his country in ridding it of hostile Indians, as related in such narratives as that which recounts the grim incidents of the Pequod war, should remember that much of the Indian blood spilled on this continent was due to the coming to it of the white man, who was the intruder and the invader of the homes and hunting-grounds of the native races of the New World. *We* came to the Indian, not the Indian to *us*. We were the aggressors. We invaded his country, and we made of it an *aceldama* of blood. Justice, therefore, as well as humanity, calls for the exercise of pity and considerate feeling in reading the account given in these pages of the extermination of an entire tribe, such as the Pequods. In the early settlement of Connecticut, as elsewhere, the white man did not always extend the olive-branch to the Indian; and hostilities were often the result of quarrels among rival white settlers. It was so at the outbreak of the Pequod war, which grew out of differences between the Dutch and English settlers in the region, and quickly drew into the struggle, not only the colonists of Connecticut, but the Narragansetts and Mohegans (Mohicans), who were only too eager to take part in rooting out their dread tribal foes, the Pequods. As it has been the fate of some portions of the race to lapse into barbarism, we should like to think that out of barbarism they will yet emerge. In the philanthropies of a coming day, we trust that forces will continually, and more effectively, be employed to restore the Indian to civilization, and to eradicate from his nature those dispositions and tendencies that drag him backward in the path of progress, or, while imitating bad examples set before him, that civilize him out of existence.

CHAPTER XII

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

[*Authorities*: In addition to the works cited at the head of the previous chapter, rich illustrative material bearing on the colonization of New England will be found in Winsor's "Memorial History of Boston," in Adams's "Emancipation of Massachusetts," and in two issues of the Johns Hopkins University Studies—Channing's "Town and County Government in the English Colonies of North America," and Andrews's "River Towns in Connecticut." Johnson's "Connecticut," in the American Commonwealth Series, should also be consulted, and Arnold's "History of Rhode Island." Hallowell's "Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts" throws light on the tenets and religious persecution of the Society of Friends, while Upham's "Salem Witchcraft" illuminates the unhappy subject of fanatical frenzy and religious delusion. For the Ann Hutchinson incident, see Adams's "Three Episodes in Massachusetts History".]



A STRANGE agitation visited Massachusetts in 1634. Ann Hutchinson, beautiful of person and brilliant of intellect, and the sister-in-law of a popular preacher in Boston, came to that town, and drew attention to herself by boldly declaring her views, which were similar to those held by Roger Williams. She had a winning gift of speech, and a wit which delighted every one. In addition to these gifts, she possessed a fair knowledge of medicine, was kind-hearted and attentive to the sick, so that it was little wonder that she became popular.

This remarkable woman advocated what was then known as Antinomianism, a doctrine which insists that a person who wishes to be saved in the world to come must depend upon faith or belief alone, without regard to good works. She affirmed that a pure life was no evidence that one was living acceptably before God, and that the believer is saved, if he be saved at all, by Heaven's grace, no matter what his actions may be.

Mrs. Hutchinson had been a warm friend of the famous preacher, John Cotton, before they left London; and now, in puritanical Boston, he showed a kindly feeling towards the religious enthusiast. So did young Henry Vane, the Governor of the commonwealth, and several clergymen, though Rev. John Wheelwright, her brother-in-law, was the only one who dared to advocate her doctrines openly. For this he was censured by the civil authorities, and, protesting, he threatened to appeal to the King. He and his sister-in-law were arraigned on the charge of heresy, and, with several of their friends, ordered to quit the neighborhood of Massachusetts Bay. Their departure was not hastened, and, under the leadership of William Coddington and John Clarke, they left Boston with the intention of settling on Delaware Bay. They called on Roger Williams during the journey, and were treated with so winning a hospitality that they accepted his invitation to settle in the land of the Narragansetts, from whom they purchased the island of Aquidneck, now Rhode Island, and in March, 1638, began the settlement of Portsmouth, in its northern part.

Banishment of Ann Hutchinson, 1637

William Coddington, who had been a crown magistrate at Salem, was chosen Governor of the Rhode Island colony. Thus, in the present little State of Rhode Island, two flourishing settlements were planted. Each had its own government, but they were friendly to one another. Absolute liberty of conscience prevailed, and the persecuted flocked thither from the other colonies. Massachusetts showed her jealousy more than once, and profitable trade between the provinces was in consequence greatly restricted.

Rhode Island Settlement, 1638

When a confederacy of the New England colonies was formed, the Rhode Island settlements were excluded. Meanwhile, Ann Hutchinson, fearing further persecution by the Plymouth authorities, left her Rhode Island home in 1642, and settled near New Amsterdam, where she was murdered by Indians. She was a widow at the time of her death, and her little daughter, eight years old, was carried away captive. Some years later, the child was recovered, through the humane efforts of the General Court of Massachusetts.

The Rhode Island colonies, having been shut out from the New England confederacy, determined to unite under one government. Roger Williams was sent to England, in the summer of 1643, to obtain a new charter. He received a warm welcome, and the charter he prayed for was issued in March, 1644. It united the towns of

Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport, under the title of "The Incorporation of Providence Plantations in the Narragansett Bay in New England." Williams came back in the summer of that year, the whole town of Providence turning out to greet him. No loving family ever showed more joy over the return of the long absent father than did the settlers, when they saw again the face of him to whom, under heaven, they felt that all their prosperity and happiness were due.

THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND

New Haven Founded, 1637

Over the border, in the southern part of Connecticut, the New Haven settlement was begun about the same time as Rhode Island. Rev. John Davenport, an eloquent Puritan preacher of London, came to America to escape persecution. Two wealthy members of his congregation, Theophilus Eaton and Edward Hopkins, were sharers with him in his voluntary exile. On the site of the present city of New Haven, several cabins were erected and a settlement begun, in the autumn of 1637. The Indians were paid for the land. The colony, in proportion to its numbers, was the richest in America. In

Bradley & Postes, Engravers, New York

SETTLEMENTS IN THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

1638, the settlement was named New Haven. The high character of these pioneers, their wisdom and liberality, resulted ere long in a rapid increase and much prosperity. Within a few years, Greenwich, Stamford, and Guilford sprang into existence, on the shores of Long Island Sound. The two colonies of Hartford and New Haven, including all the settlements in Connecticut, were united in 1665 under one government.

Union of the Connecticut Colonies, 1665

Having glanced at the first settlements in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, we must learn what was done in the way of colonization to the northward. As early as 1623, the Plymouth Company vested in two of its leading members, Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason, all the region lying between the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, the northern boundary being the St. Lawrence, and the western the Great Lakes. They named the grant Laconia, but some years afterwards they divided the territory between them. Mason took the western part and called it New Hampshire, after the county of Hampshire, in England; while Gorges named his portion Maine, that being the fashion of referring to a stretch of coast or mainland.

A number of trading-posts were established along the coast, and some of these in time grew into towns. Among them were Portsmouth, Kittery, Dover, Exeter, and York. As the years passed, the proprietary government of Gorges and Mason became obnoxious to the majority, who leaned towards the Puritanism of Massachusetts. At the instance of the dissatisfied ones among them New Hampshire, in 1641, came under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and so remained for nearly half a century. Litigation and wrangling followed between the heirs of Mason and the tenants who refused to pay rent. Finally, in 1679, Charles II. made New Hampshire a royal province; but the strife continued, and did not cease until well into the eighteenth century.

Strife over the Provinces

William Gorges, nephew of the baronet, came to Maine, and established a regular government at Saco, in March, 1636. The settlements were so sparse and weak that, in 1652-1653, the province passed under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and so remained until 1820.

The New England colonists gave conscientious attention to religion and the education of their youth. Wherever a settlement was made, a church was erected, and the training of the young carefully

looked after. The influence of the preacher, indeed, was felt everywhere. There were no Sunday-schools in America until the nineteenth century; but the parents were strict with their children, and the preacher was strict with both.

Public schools were at an early period organized in the South and the North. We have spoken of the founding of the William and Mary College in Virginia, but early as was its foundation, Massachusetts was more than half a century ahead of that southern colony. In the autumn of 1636, the General Court of Boston voted to appropriate £400 towards the founding of a place of superior education. This was a large sum for those days, and particularly so, since Massachusetts was sorely disturbed by the Pequod war and the disputations which Ann Hutchinson caused; hence the province deserves much credit for the step it then took. The Rev. John Harvard left £800 for the erection of the necessary building at Cambridge—known then as Newton—three miles from Boston. The court, in 1639, ordered the college to be named in honor of the deceased clergyman. The institution was opened in 1638 and incorporated in 1650. A printing press attached to it was the first, and for a long time, the only one, in the country. The Rev. Mr. Harvard also left his fine library to the college; but, in 1764, a fire destroyed every book in it with, we believe, but a single exception.

Founding of Harvard College, 1636

The First Printing Press, 1638

It has been said that those in authority looked closely after the morals of the community. England was so sorely plagued by her domestic troubles that for a long time she paid little attention to her American colonies. However, at the close of 1641, a "Body of Liberties" was passed, by which the legal rights of the citizens were clearly set forth. A hundred fundamental laws were drafted which were read and considered within the following three years in every court in the commonwealth. Such as were not repealed or changed were put in force. Most of these laws were written by Nathaniel Ward, a lawyer, who had been a Puritan clergyman. As years passed, they were revised and nearly all underwent change. Americans of to-day would laugh at any body of lawmakers who would attempt now to make such rules for their government. For instance, every well person was compelled to attend church under a heavy penalty; slavery was sanctioned; while among the ten offenses punishable with death were witchcraft, idolatry, blasphemy, and treason, either against the commonwealth or the King. Legislation is, of course,

The "Body of Liberties," 1641

necessary for our protection; but hardly any human law can be devised for making a person good; and, though much has been said about the rigid morality of the Puritans, it must not be supposed that they were wholly free from vice.

A general court was held in Boston, in 1643, at which were present two commissioners each from Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. Massachusetts, by virtue of her importance, was represented by the Governor, two magistrates, and three deputies. This court took one of the most important steps in our early history by forming a federation of the colonies, under the title of the United Colonies of New England, the object being mutual support in all matters of common weal. This step, as has been said, was an important one, for thousands of the Indians were hostile; the French were encroaching from the east, and the Dutch from the west. The population of New England had grown to twenty-five thousand, distributed among fifty towns and villages, and was steadily increasing. The interests of these peoples were interwoven in commerce, in matters of state, and in religion. The written agreement in the twelve articles of confederation was signed on the 20th of August. It has been shown that the application of the colony of Rhode Island was denied, because in matters of conscience she would not yield to Massachusetts.

The United Colonies of New England, 1643-1684

Each settlement was undisturbed in its local jurisdiction, and the federal government was vested in eight commissioners, two from each colony, appointed by their respective general courts. These commissioners were to meet once a year, or more frequently should occasion arise, the place of meeting changing regularly from Boston to Hartford, to New Haven and Plymouth, until a central capital should be fixed upon. This confederation lasted until 1684, during which period it was confined to the four colonies named, and during which period, also, the government in the mother country was changed three times. Virginia, meanwhile, strongly sympathized with the monarchy in England, Governor Berkeley going so far as to ask for his commission from the exiled King, and refusing to acknowledge Cromwell as the chief ruler. The opposite sentiment prevailed in New England, which was consequently regarded with friendly interest by the Protector.

Virginia Favors English Monarchy

A profitable and growing commerce existed between Massachusetts and the West India Islands. One of the results of this trade

From the Original Drawing by H. A. Ogden

"WITH THE COMPLIMENTS OF THE CAPTAIN"

was the entrance of considerable uncoined gold and silver—known as "bullion"—into the colony. The authorities, in 1651, caused the establishment of a mint for the coinage of these metals, and in the following year a number of silver coins were struck, of the denominations of threepence, sixpence, and twelvepence, or a shilling. This was the first coinage in America.

The First Coinage in America, 1652

In the preceding pages some reference has been made to the laws and manner of government in New England. Than the Puritans, it it is not supposed that a stricter people ever lived. It is said that a man was once tried and censured by the authorities, because, when he returned from church and found his fire had died out, he split a stick of wood with which to rekindle it. It was considered wicked for a husband to kiss his wife on Sunday. Cards and dice were not permitted under any circumstances, and a woman was fined if she cut her hair after the fashion of a man. No Jesuit or Roman Catholic priest was allowed in the colony. In going to and coming from church one must not run nor lag, but walk "reverently." If a person's dress was thought too expensive for his or her income, the wearer of it was warned by the grand jurors, and if the offense were persisted in, was fined.

The Blue Laws

It is stated that as late almost as the middle of the eighteenth century, the commander of a British man-of-war was publicly flogged (although very mildly and amid much merriment) for kissing his wife when he met her in the street after his return from a long cruise. It is said further that, when about to sail, the captain invited those responsible for his flogging to a dinner aboard ship, as an evidence that he harbored no resentment. The invitation was accepted, and at its conclusion the boatswain and mate, by order of the captain, lashed the magistrates soundly with a knotted cat-o'-nine-tails, and drove them pell-mell over the ship's side into the boat waiting to take them ashore.

A Kiss and its Consequences

The wise and kind-hearted Governor Winthrop had little patience with these absurd laws, and complacently managed to evade their enforcement by many ingenious methods. The pleasing anecdote is told that when it was reported to him that a poor man was in the habit of stealing from his woodpile, the Governor remarked with much sternness that he would stop that business very quickly. He summoned the man before him and said: "I understand you are poor, have a large family, and no wood; I've plenty; come whenever you

choose and help yourself; you're welcome!" Then, addressing the accusers, the Governor added: "Now find him guilty of pilfering, if you can."

"Cranks" and Criminals

It must be borne in mind that from the time when the Puritans fled to America to escape persecution, the colonies became a refuge for all manner of oppressed people. Among them were at times many pestiferous "cranks," disturbers, and criminals. Some of these wrought so hard to influence those around them, that the

A GRACIOUS ACT

Puritans, in self-defense, passed the sternest of repressive measures, and inflexibly enforced them.

The Quakers

When we hear of the persecution of the Friends or Quakers, we are apt to give them our fullest sympathy; for to-day they are among the most peaceable, law-abiding, and God-fearing people that can be found anywhere. But some of them at that early time were veritable thorns in the side of the community. Their zeal carried them to intolerable lengths, several acting as if they were really insane.

George Fox was the founder of the sect. It is related of him that he once said to one of his prosecuting magistrates that he "should tremble at the word of the Lord." The justice, in derision, called Fox and his friends "Quakers," and the name has clung to them ever since. Their persecution in England was so violent that, from 1651 to 1657, two thousand were imprisoned, of whom a number died. Massachusetts knew of them and dreaded their coming.

Liberty of Speech

The Quakers carried liberty of speech to extravagant excess. They openly reviled preachers and magistrates; declared it a sin to pay ministers; that no man, however exalted his station, should be addressed otherwise than as "thee" or "thou"; that it was wicked to say, "good-morning," or "good-evening," since the salutation implied that there were some mornings and evenings that were not good; that they held the exclusive possession of the gifts of the Holy Spirit, and that all other sects were doomed to everlasting punishment. A number of Quaker women appeared on the streets in Boston without clothing, claiming that they did so as a testimony.

The first Quakers to reach this country were Mary Fisher and Anne Austin, who arrived at Boston from the Barbadoes, in July, 1656. They were promptly expelled; but a few weeks afterwards another ship brought five male and four female Quakers. These were hardly given time to set foot on land, when, like their predecessors, they were shipped back to England.

Persecution of the Quakers

Well aware that these rigid measures would only fire the zeal of the persecuted people, the United Colonies passed severe laws against them. Massachusetts imposed a penalty of one hundred pounds on any shipmaster who brought a Quaker into the province, and exacted security for his return to the port whence he came. It was further enacted, that all Quakers should be imprisoned and whipped, that the circulation or custody of a Quaker book should be punishable by a fine of five pounds, and that severe penalties would be imposed upon any one who attempted to befriend the sect or espouse their cause. None of these measures, however, sufficed to keep the Quakers away, and still more severe ones were resorted to. Laws were passed authorizing the cropping of ears, the boring of tongues with hot irons, and even adding the extreme penalty of hanging. Mary Clarke, who came from London, was whipped in August, 1657. Christopher Holden and John Copeland, coming back to Salem after being banished to England, were whipped and imprisoned, and the

husband and wife who sheltered them were both put in jail. Christopher Holden, John Copeland, and John Rouse returned a second time after expulsion, whereupon the right ear of each was cut off by the knife of the hangman. This was the only time the cruel sentence was ever enforced in New England, and no Quaker ever had his tongue bored through with a hot iron.

Decree against the Quakers

The anger against the disturbers deepened, and to stamp out the sect, Massachusetts now decreed that any Quaker who returned to the province after being twice expelled should suffer death. William Robinson and Marmaduke Stevenson arrived in Boston in the summer of 1659, where they were joined by Nicholas Davis and Mary Dyer. They were immediately arrested and ordered to leave. Davis and Mary Dyer obeyed, but the other two returned and were soon followed by the woman. They were rearrested, brought before the General Court, and having acknowledged that they had returned from banishment, were sentenced to death.

Hanging of Quakers in Boston

The harshness of this sentence was condemned by many, and a strong guard of soldiers was deemed necessary at the execution, which was fixed for the 27th of October, 1659, on Boston Common. The two men suffered the extreme penalty, but Mary Dyer was given in charge of her son, who had come from Rhode Island to plead for her life. She returned, however, in the following spring, and, refusing to promise to stay out of the colony, was also hanged on Boston Common. In 1661, William Leddra, having returned after banishment, was arrested, tried, convicted, and executed like the others. These four persons were, it is believed, the only Quakers who suffered the death penalty.*

*It is difficult in later days to comprehend the reason for the persecution of the Quakers, or to account even for the hostility towards them, since they were not only a quiet, inoffensive people, much as they still are to-day, but were for the most part unaggressive in their religious convictions, and uniformly exemplary in their lives. Some, it is true, as has been shown in the narrative, were actuated by undue zeal, and were apt to be impatient at the exercise of restraining and chastening authority, as well as stubborn in resisting expatriation and exclusion from colonization with their kin. The time was, however, intolerant, and religious persecution rampant. With the death, in 1690, of George Fox, their founder, the zeal of the Society of Friends and the propagandism of the sect waned, and Quakerism has since enjoyed a more reposeful and passive career. The earnestness of its religious life, and the humanity and gentleness of its adherents, coupled with a hatred of war and human slavery, merit for the sect the respect and good-will of their fellow-men. It is a mistaken notion that Quakers reject Christian revelation and the authority of the Scriptures; this they do not, but hold that the latter are to be read and their precepts followed in the light that comes through the promptings and guiding of the Spirit. This is the distinctive doctrine of the Friends.

Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut refused to go to such lengths as Massachusetts in their persecution of the Friends. Roger Williams said that the doctrines of the sect were bad, but their persecution was worse, and he and his people, therefore, did not disturb

JOHN ELIOT

them. Rhode Island was always a "city of refuge" to those who were persecuted for conscience's sake.

The cruelty shown to the Quakers brought about a sentiment in their favor, especially as the members of the sect became more orderly

and careful to observe the law. The wicked provisions against them were repealed in 1661, and a more tolerant spirit prevailed. Good men saw that it was in better accord with the sweetness of God's love that those who professed His name should be friends rather than enemies, and that their duty was to labor for the conversion of the Indians, instead of seeking to persecute or destroy each other.

Eliot, the Apostle of the Indians

One of the most godly and self-sacrificing of men was John Eliot, whose labors among the red men won for him the name of "the apostle of the Indians." He was a pastor, in 1632, of the first church in Roxbury. He acquired the language of the Indians, and his powerful appeals to the chiefs and warriors brought many into the fold of the Master. He formed a band which was known as the "Praying Indians," some of whom became magistrates and constables in their own towns. Eliot translated the Bible into the Indian language, and copies of the remarkable volume are still preserved. The good which this extraordinary man did can never be known until that day when we must all render an account of the deeds done in this life.

Charles I Beheaded, 1649

King Charles I. of England was beheaded in January, 1649, and, eleven years later, when the Commonwealth had given place to the Restoration, his exiled son returned to London and was crowned Charles II. The new King hunted down with remorseless fury those that had taken part in the execution of his father. Some were hanged, while others were imprisoned for life, or escaped punishment by flight.

Among the latter were Edward Whalley and William Goffe, who reached America with the first news of the restoration of the monarchy. Goffe was the son-in-law of Whalley. Both had been generals under Cromwell, and had served on the commission which ordered the execution of King Charles. The new ruler was specially anxious to secure these offenders, and officers were sent to New England to arrest them. But they had many friends, who lent their aid in protecting the regicides. In their concealment they were removed from place to place, and when the hunt became dangerously close, they lived for a long time in a cave near New Haven. The search growing more lax, they took up their abode in Hadley, where Whalley died. Goffe survived many years, and was the hero of a strange incident, which will be found set forth in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XIII

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

[*Authorities*: For a more extended narrative of the chief incidents of this chapter, the general histories of New England, previously cited, will suffice. The chapter deals almost exclusively with what is known as King Philip's War. Philip, or Pometacom, was a younger son of Massasoit, chief sachem of the Pokanoket Indians of Massachusetts, with whom the Plymouth colonists had formed a treaty of alliance, which had been religiously kept by Massasoit, though in 1675 it was set at nought by his warlike son, whom the English called King Philip. With the exception of the trouble with the Pequods, the united colonies of New England had been little molested during Massasoit's life-time. A change, however, came with the succession of Philip, whose intrigues with the Narragansetts and Nipmucks led to the destruction of thirteen towns founded by the New Englanders, and the loss, in killed and taken captive, of nearly six hundred colonists. This loss of life and destruction of property brought its unhappy reckoning, in the final hunting down of Philip and the annihilation of the Indians under him, after a three years' reign of terror. Besides the great loss of life on both sides, the cost of Philip's war to the colonies was heavy and burdensome.]

THE ten years between 1670 and 1680 form a memorable period in the history of the three leading colonies of America. They saw New Amsterdam and the province of New Netherland wrested from the Dutch by the English, recaptured by the Dutch, and finally transferred by treaty to England, thus to remain until the Revolution. During the same period, civil war broke out and raged in Virginia. Nathaniel Bacon fought the tyrannous Governor Berkeley hard, but when everything promised success for him, the young planter died. And now important events were impending over the United Colonies of New England.

Away back in the terrible days of the first settlement of New Plymouth, the starving colonists, it will be remembered, received a visit from Massasoit, head chief of the Wampanoags, who was treated so

humanely, that he remained their friend through life. He died in 1661, at the age of fourscore, leaving two sons, Wamsutta and Pometacom, known to the English as Alexander and Philip.

The settlers were from the first distrustful of both of these young men. Alexander, being the elder, was the "heir apparent" to the Wampanoag throne. He had scarcely succeeded his father, when there were so many reports abroad of his plotting against the whites that he was ordered to appear before the general court at Plymouth to clear, if possible, his character from suspicion. He disregarded the order, was arrested, and brought into the presence of the authorities, where his explanation of his conduct was accepted. Soon after this occurrence Alexander died very suddenly, and the Indians insisted that he had been poisoned by the English, who ascribed his death to intense mortification and anger because of his arrest. How shall we decide which theory was correct?

Death of Alexander

The second son, Philip, now became chief of his tribe. He ranks as one of the great Indians of history, and will always be known as "King Philip," and sometimes as "King Philip, of Mount Hope," because his home was on Mount Hope, near Bristol, in Rhode Island. He renewed the treaty made by his father with the English, and for a dozen years faithfully observed its provisions. The colonists, however, were still suspicious of him, and summoned him to Plymouth to explain the rumors about his plottings. Philip obeyed the command, and asserted that he harbored no thought of harming the whites. In proof of his sincerity, he offered his younger brother as a hostage until the truth could be proved. The court did not accept the offer, and Philip and five of his sachems* signed an agreement to remain loyal and faithful subjects of the King of England, while the court, in turn, bound itself to give Philip and his tribe whatever help they might need. The peace which followed lasted for five years.

Peace Treaty with the Indians

The fires of hatred slumbered but were not quenched in the hearts of the red men, and the colonists could never rid themselves of their misgivings of Philip. Many minor causes added to the friction between the sachem and the white people, until only a little more irritation was needed to bring on an outbreak. There were numbers of "praying Indians" among the Wampanoags, and one of them, John Sassamon, had been partially educated at Harvard

*Sa'-chem, a chief.

College. He acted as the close friend and secretary of Philip, and regularly revealed to the colonists every plan and scheme of the sachem. His treachery was discovered, and he was killed, probably by the order of Philip. Three Wampanoags were convicted of the crime and hanged. The testimony which condemned them would not have been accepted in any civilized court to-day.

By this time Philip had made up his mind to go to war. He saw that he was continually suspected, that his declarations of friendship

INDIANS ATTACK SWANSEA

King Philip's War, 1675-1678

were not believed, and that the blame of every wrong done by his people was placed at his door. But the sachem could not rally a thousand warriors of his own people, whereas, if he formed a union of the tribes in New England, he would be able to muster twenty-five thousand. He sought to bring about such a union, but, before he could succeed in the effort, the eagerness of the Wampanoags compelled him to lead them upon the warpath. The squaws and papooses were sent to the Narragansetts, and his warriors at once made ready for the fray.

The settlements saw with alarm the approaching signs of war. The 24th of June, 1675, was appointed as a day of fasting and prayer, that the calamity might be averted. At Swansea, while the people were returning from church, they were suddenly attacked by a force of Indians. One man was killed, and several were wounded. Two others ran for a surgeon, but were killed, and six more were shot down near the fort. Several houses and barns were burned, and the Wampanoags fled before the whites could rally against them. The war having been opened in this startling manner, it was prosecuted with the utmost fury by the red men. The New England settlements were so far apart that they were peculiarly exposed to Indian attack. The crack of the rifle, and the war-whoop, broke the midnight stillness, and the shadowy figures, hideous in their warpaint, leaped from the gloom of the woods with tomahawk and knife, and rushed upon their victims before they were fairly awakened from sleep. Men, women, and children, and even babes-in-arms, received no mercy at the hands of these fierce warriors, who seemed to feel that theirs was the task to avenge the wrongs of a century.

Attack on Swansea

For some time after the opening of the war, the strife was confined to the Plymouth colony, where Winslow was Governor, while John Winthrop, the younger, was Governor of Connecticut and New Haven, and Leverett Governor of Massachusetts. Rhode Island tried to keep out of the war, but was unable to do so. A number of her people were killed at Tiverton, and several houses burned at Providence. The whites compelled the Narragansetts to make a treaty of peace with them. This was an almost fatal blow to Philip's hopes, but he was undismayed, and roused other tribes to join him in the warfare.

Scouts reported that the Nipmuck Indians were about to unite with Philip, and Captain Edward Hutchinson with a score of troopers was sent to prevent, if possible, such a junction. On the road, the party was ambushed, and eight were killed and four wounded, Captain Hutchinson being among the slain. Those who escaped succeeded in reaching Brookfield and gave the alarm. The terrified inhabitants, numbering about a hundred, knew that the Indians would soon be there, so they hurriedly crowded into the only stone structure in the place. They had hardly done this, when several hundred screeching savages swarmed through the village, with rifle, tomahawk, scalping-knife, and torch. House after house was fired, until

Attack on Brookfield

ATTACK ON BROOKFIELD

every building, except the stone structure which served as a refuge, was in flames.

Men who were defending not only their own lives but those of their wives and little ones against Indians could be depended upon to fight to the last, for they knew that surrender could not save them. Again and again did a painted warrior, torch in hand, try to steal up to the building, but in every instance he was shot down by the alert defenders. An unwary settler was seized by the savages, killed and his head used as a football. Every man in the house knew that, unless help reached them, they were doomed. A swift runner attempted to steal into the woods, to alarm the nearest settlement, but was detected by the watchful Indians, and had barely time to run back among his friends to secure his own safety. After waiting a while, another scout repeated the attempt, with a like result. Then that hope was abandoned.

A Desperate Situation

All through the night the danger continued, and, if possible, grew greater. The repeated failures of the assailants only made them more cautious. Arrows tipped with burning tow were aimed against the roof of the building, but the flames thus kindled did not hold. About midnight, the full moon rose above the tree-tops, and revealed a new and startling peril to the defenders. The Nipmucks had silently gathered a huge pile of leaves, twigs, and dried branches at one corner of the building to which they now applied the torch. This meant a horrible death to all unless the flames in some way or other could be extinguished, and it was soon seen to be impossible to quench them from the inside. Under cover of a number of the best marksmen, several defenders rushed out and scattered the burning mass, returning into the building without harm. Again did the Indians pile the material together and fire it, and a second time was it flung aside by the daring settlers. Not only were the assailants repulsed, but, during the confusion, one of the swiftest runners of the white men succeeded in darting into the woods without detection, and started off in quest of the help which was so sorely needed. All through the night, and the succeeding day and night, was the attack pressed without cessation. The roof was repeatedly set on fire by the blazing arrows, but holes were cut and water flung upon the wreaths of flame before they gained headway. This occurred so often that the roof was perforated and partially burnt in a score of places.

Pertinacity of the Attack

Still the assailants would not relax their fell designs, but persevered

From the Original Drawing by W. P. Snyder

A FRIEND IN NEED

until it seemed that they must succeed. On the third day a wagon was loaded with hemp, flax, hay, and wood, fired and backed against the house. The load served as an effective shield to the Indians, who kept it between them and the rifles of the defenders, and when it was all ablaze, jammed it against the building. At this dreadful moment, when the distressed colonists were in despair, a sudden fall of rain quenched the flames, and so saturated the material that it was impossible to rekindle it. It was a merciful deliverance.

Prompt Aid from a Veteran

Meanwhile, the runner who eluded the savages was making the best possible use of his time, and another of those strange providences, which made the defense of Brookfield one of the most striking episodes of colonial history, intervened to save the defenders, when all hope seemed gone. Major Simon Willard, a hardy veteran of seventy years, was at Boston, thirty miles away, when news was brought to him of the sore strait of Brookfield. He and fifty troopers leaped into their saddles and dashed to the help of their friends. Just as night was closing in, they reached the town and attacked the Nipmucks with the utmost fury. When this tragic work was done, not a live Indian was in sight, and eighty of their number (including those shot by the defenders) were stretched lifeless on the ground.

On the first day of the following month, which was a Sunday, the Indians made a furious assault upon Hadley, Massachusetts. So sudden was the attack that the settlers were driven towards the meetinghouse, in which the women and children had taken refuge, and it looked as if the most frightful massacre of the whole war was about to ensue. Presently, a tall man appeared among the panic-stricken people, as if he had sprung from the ground. He had flowing white hair, a long grizzled beard, and carried a sword in his hand. He issued his commands in a sharp, ringing voice and with a martial air which showed that that was not the first time he had been in battle. He quickly brought order out of chaos, secured discipline, and led a charge against the Indians which scattered them in every direction. Then he vanished as unaccountably as he had appeared. It cannot be wondered at that the devout settlers looked upon the mysterious stranger as a visitant from heaven sent to save them. He was veritable flesh and blood, however, in the person of General Goffe, the regicide, one of the major-generals under Cromwell, who was in hiding from the officers of King Charles II. at the house of a friend in Hadley.

A Mysterious Leader

On the same day that this happened a number of houses and barns were burned at Deerfield; and some weeks later most of the dwellings in Northfield were destroyed, and a dozen settlers killed. Captain Beers and thirty men set out to relieve the place, but were ambushed on the way, and he and twenty of his soldiers were slain.

Deerfield again Attacked

Deerfield was once again attacked, this time on a Sunday. The colonist-farmers fled in such haste that they left a large quantity of grain unthreshed in the fields. To save it from the enemy, Captain Lathrop, with eighty young men of Ipswich, "the flower of Essex," set out with wagons and teamsters to finish threshing the grain and secure it. This was done, and with the loaded wagons they started to return. On the morning of the 18th, unsuspicious of danger, the party halted by a small brook for rest. The abundance of luscious grapes caused them to leave their weapons in the wagons, while they separated to gather the tempting fruit. A force of several hundred Indians had been stealthily following the party all night, waiting for some such opportunity as now presented itself. They fell upon the unarmed men with an impetuosity that allowed only seven to escape. Captain Mosely, with a small force at Deerfield, heard the firing and apprehended its cause. He hurried to the spot, attacked the Indians with great gallantry, and being reinforced, inflicted severe loss upon them and drove them off. That day the water in the little stream ran red from the butchery, and it has been known ever since as "Bloody Brook."

Threshing under Difficulties

The settlers were terrified at the success of King Philip. They saw that the only way to escape the fate that had overtaken so many was by a ceaseless campaign against him—one that should crush him and his tribe. The formidable Narragansetts had become his allies, and it was decided first to march against them. Accordingly, Connecticut, Plymouth, and Massachusetts placed an armed force in the field, of more than one thousand men, one-half of whom were furnished by Massachusetts. They were joined by one hundred and fifty Mohican warriors, under the command of Governor Josiah Winslow, of Plymouth.

The Narragansetts Take to the War-path

Through a captured prisoner, Winslow was apprised that more than three thousand Narragansetts had rendezvoused in their stronghold at South Kingston, Rhode Island. This fort, so far as known, was never surpassed in strength by any other constructed by American Indians. It stood on elevated ground in the midst of a

INDIANS TORTURING A PRISONER

swamp, and covered several acres. Strong palisades enclosed it on every side. The only path leading within it was over a foot-bridge of logs loosely flung together. Within this enclosure the Indians had constructed six hundred wigwams, and stored their winter provisions. The weather was bitterly cold, and snow had fallen to a great depth. The stronghold was so difficult of access, and the weather so severe, that the Narragansetts felt little fear of molestation. It was no child's play for the New Englanders to assault the place; and when,

THE NARRAGANSETT STRONGHOLD

on the 19th of December, they rushed through the snow in the effort to capture it, they were met with so destructive a fire that they were forced back with heavy loss, six captains being among the number slain.

Attack on the Narragansetts' Stronghold, 1675

Captain Benjamin Church, seeing that it was almost impossible to take the fort from its face-front, assailed it from the rear. There the defenses were not quite so strong, and after the most desperate fighting he and his party forced an entrance. So furious was the

struggle at this point that Church was wounded three times. He did not wish to fire the wigwams, because they were filled with corn, but in no other way could the Narragansetts be ejected. The torch was applied in a score of places, and the flames darted from wigwam to wigwam until the whole interior was a roaring conflagration.

The intolerable heat drove out the Indians. On the outside, they fought with the same bravery they had shown from the first, and only after the most determined efforts were the soldiers able to drive them from the swamp and into the open country. Six or seven hundred warriors were killed, including a number of leading chiefs, while the loss of the soldiers was nearly a hundred slain and a greater number wounded. Among the captured Indians was Canonchet, the head sachem of the tribe, who had broken his treaty with the whites. To punish him for his treachery, he was put to death. The loss of their food brought the Narragansetts to the verge of starvation. Indeed, many of them perished with hunger, and the dominion of the once powerful tribe was destroyed.

A Fearful Slaughter

It would seem that so crushing a victory ought to have ended the war, and it probably would had Philip been killed, but his hatred of the white people made him as active in his hostility as ever. He strove to induce the Mohawks to join him, but they refused, and he stirred up other Indians to take anew the warpath. In about a month, the war spread over an area of three hundred miles. Exposed cabins were ruthlessly fired, and families were tortured to death. Warwick and Providence, in Rhode Island, were almost laid in ashes, and in Massachusetts, the villages of Medford, Weymouth, Groton, Lancaster, and Marlborough were burned. Lancaster fell a victim to the vengeance of the Wachuset warriors. The attack was made late in winter, and after a number had been slain, others were carried off prisoners. Among these was Mrs. Rowlandson, wife of the minister, and her little girl, barely six years old. Both were wounded by the same bullet, but the devoted mother tramped through the snow for more than a week, with the little one pressed to her breast, and then saw it die in her arms. For three days neither partook of a mouthful of food. After several months of captivity, the mother was ransomed and returned to her friends.

Extent of the War

So many successes came to the Indians that they grew more reckless and defiant. A number actually encamped among the deserted fields at Deerfield and began planting them. This so roused

Captain Turner, twenty miles away, that he gathered a hundred troopers, and riding hard, reached the Indian encampment at daylight, May 10. The attack was a surprise to the savages, most of whom fled in such haste to their canoes that they left their paddles behind, and were swept over the falls. The others were pursued and shot down with so much vigor that between two and three hundred were slain, while only a single white man was killed. Sad to say, however, the soldiers, in this engagement as in many other instances, lost the decisive advantage they had gained. Another large force of hostiles was in the vicinity, and made haste to the spot. The rumor that the implacable Philip was the leader of this band stampeded the soldiers, of whom one-third, including Captain Turner, were unfortunately killed.

A Victory for the Settlers at Turner's Falls, 1676

But there could be only one end to this decimating warfare. The whites were the more numerous, and with their discipline and resolution they began to gain ground. An attack upon Hadley by the savages was repulsed with heavy loss, and so many other defeats followed that the scene of hostilities shifted southward to Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Massachusetts passed a law providing for the impressment of soldiers, and enforced all possible measures against the Indians. Captain Church, having recovered from the wounds received at Kingston, was merciless in harrying the hostiles. He persuaded a number who were allies of Philip to withdraw from his support, and at the opportune hour, Massachusetts sent out a proclamation offering to pardon every warrior who would lay down his arms within two weeks. A great many took advantage of this offer, so that by midsummer the war was virtually over.

End of the War 1676

But among those who submitted was not King Philip. When one of his warriors ventured to advise him to surrender, the chieftain buried his tomahawk in his brain. Philip cut off his hair and so changed his appearance that only his most intimate friends could recognize him. There is no doubt that this disguise was more than once the means of saving the sachem of the Wampanoags when he was hard pressed. His uncle was shot down at his side by a soldier, who, had he suspected the identity of the chieftain, would not have wasted his bullet upon his relative. Philip and a number of his companions, however, were fugitives, and were forced to flee from place to place, hiding in the deepest swamps, run-

Philip a Fugitive

ning for their lives, and without cessation were hunted night and day.

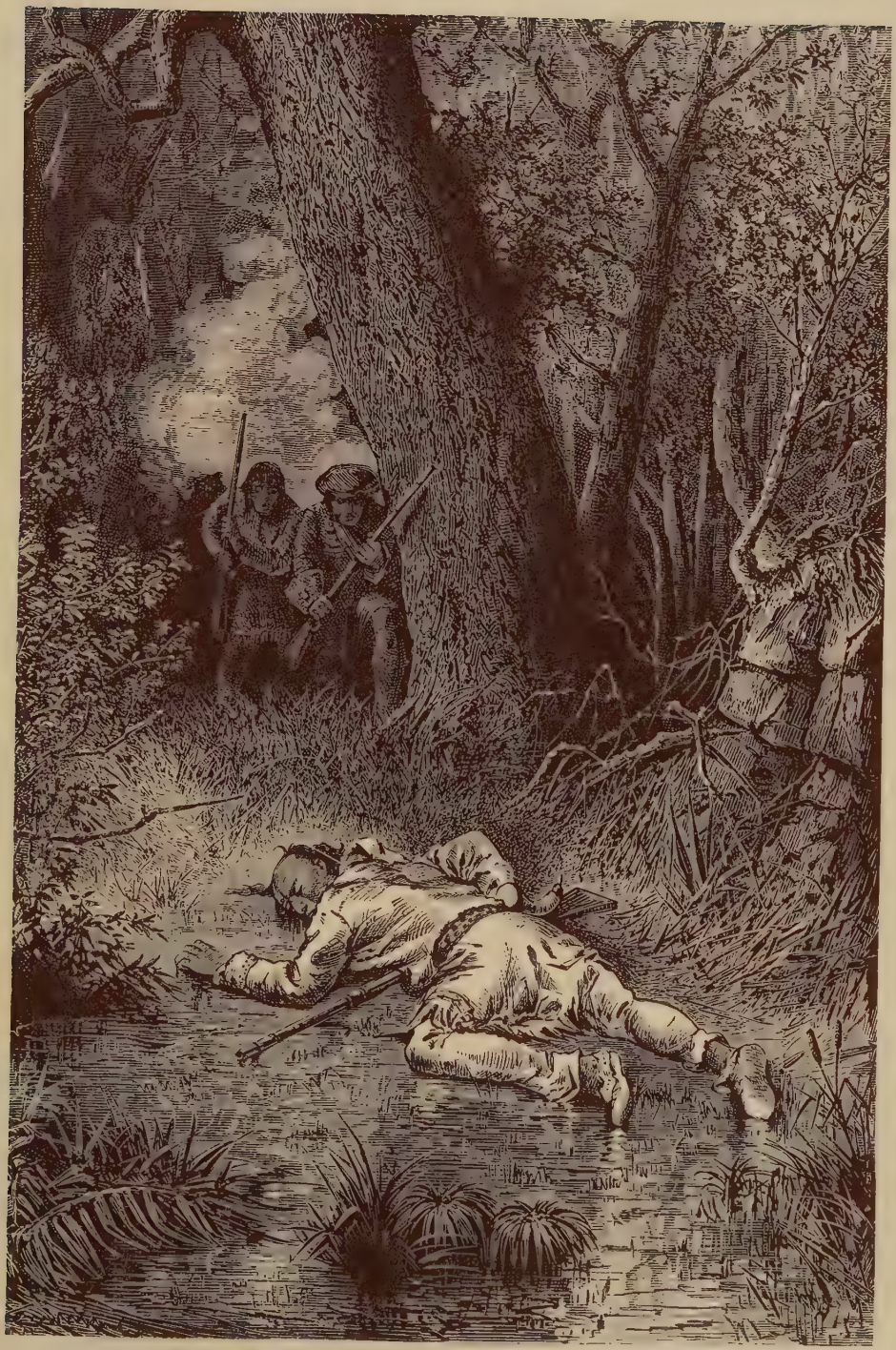
One afternoon, an Indian runner came into the camp of Captain Church, at Tiverton, with most important news. He said that Philip and his small band were on a piece of land at the south end of the swamp, near the foot of Mount Hope. The motive of the Indian in thus betraying his leader it seems was revenge, for he was the brother of the warrior whom Philip slew because he advised the sachem to surrender. Church was familiar with the spot, and did not doubt the truth of the warrior's statement. Without the loss of an hour he hurried thither, and placed his men so as to guard every outlet of the swamp. Then he sent in several soldiers to rout out the Chief.

The instant Philip saw his danger he made a dash for one of the outlets, where a soldier and an Indian ally were stationed. Seeing the fugitive approaching, the two raised their rifles and fired at the same instant. The weapon of the white man "flashed in the pan," but the Indian's did not. His bullet went through Philip's heart, who with a shriek flung his arms aloft, and fell dead in a pool of water. Captain Church cut off the Indian chief's head, and it was for a time displayed on the palisades at Plymouth. The wife and son of the chieftain had been captured before his death, and the Massachusetts authorities debated as to what was the wisest disposition to make particularly of the heir to the Wampanoag throne. Was it more prudent to put him to death than to make a slave of him? The latter course was adopted, and he was sold into slavery in Bermuda. Such was the woeful ending of the dynasty of Massasoit, who welcomed the Pilgrims to Plymouth and remained their constant friend throughout his long lifetime.

Death of King Philip

In one sense, King Philip's war was the most disastrous that had afflicted the colonies. More than six hundred persons, mostly young men who could ill be spared, had been slain; thirteen towns and five hundred buildings were burned; while the expense of the war was fully half a million dollars. To the Indians the cost was still more fearful. Probably three thousand of them were killed, and a death-blow was given to the powerful confederacy which the genius of Philip had welded together from the most stubborn of all materials. A treaty was made in 1678, which brought hostilities to an end.

Counting the Cost



DEATH OF KING PHILIP

CHAPTER XIV

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(*Continued*)

[*Authorities*: Besides the troubles with local Indian tribes narrated in the previous chapter, the New England colonists were now to suffer severely from the forays of the French in Canada, at the time under the iron rule of Count Frontenac, the ablest administrator France ever had in the New World. The two great European races were then engaged in war, owing chiefly to Louis XIV. having espoused the Stuart cause, after the English Revolution of 1688. Frontenac, taking advantage of that fact, and holding the English colonists of the seaboard responsible for inciting Iroquois attacks upon the French settlements on the St. Lawrence, organized repeated military expeditions, composed largely of Huron Indians, into the frontier settlements of Maine, New Hampshire, and New York, and committed great havoc, and caused much shedding of blood. To offset these raids, a colonial congress, held at New York, ordered an attack by sea on the French posts in Acadia, which were captured; but Sir William Phips's attack on Quebec, which followed, was repulsed and the raid abandoned. The expeditions continued for some years, until the passing of the Treaty of Ryswick (1697), when there was a period of five years' peace, until the outbreak of what is known as Queen Anne's war (1702-1713), over the question of the Spanish succession in Europe. The chief event in the New World of that European embroilment was the capture, by the New England troops, of the French stronghold of Louisbourg, in Cape Breton, which, however, reverted shortly afterwards to the French, under the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). For a fuller treatment of these matters, as they affected the New England colonies, see the general histories, and the chief local monographs previously cited.]

The Charter Oak

JAMES II. ascended the throne of England in 1685. He was a great tyrant, and one of his first acts was to declare void the charter of Massachusetts, and to appoint Joseph Dudley Governor of the country from Rhode Island to Nova Scotia. The latter was almost immediately succeeded by Sir Edmund Andros as Viceroy of all New England.

Something has been said in a previous chapter about Governor Andros. In his anxiety to carry out his sovereign's will, he became

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

so oppressive that he was soon detested by those over whom he ruled. The people of Massachusetts were on the point of rising in arms and driving him from the colony, when the welcome news reached Boston, in April, 1689, that the revolution which brought about the fall of the Stuart dynasty in England had resulted in placing William and Mary on the throne. James II. saved his head by fleeing to France, where the French King, Louis XIV., sheltered him. Both were Roman Catholics, and the French monarch promised to help his royal English brother to regain his throne from William and Mary, both of whom were Protestants. War, therefore, broke out between France and England, and involved their respective colonies in America. This conflict is known in history as King William's War.

King William's War, 1689-1697

The news of James's dethronement kindled a revolt in Massachusetts. Simon Bradstreet, then ninety years of age, was Governor, when the King struck down the liberties of the province, and he was now reinstated. Andros blustered, but he and the more obnoxious of his associates were arrested and imprisoned. An assembly was called, which declared the ancient charter restored. William and Mary were proclaimed in May, and a letter from the joint sovereigns approved of the acts and directed Andros to appear in England to answer the charges against him.

The French were wiser than the English in gaining the friendship of the Indians of the Algonquin stock who peopled the St. Lawrence Valley, and who now became their allies in desolating the English settlements. The colonists from France had settled in Canada and along the St. Lawrence, and were, therefore, neighbors of those in New York and Northern New England. The French Jesuits were an association of Roman Catholics of every degree, who cheerfully underwent all manner of trial, affliction, suffering, and self-sacrifice to convert the Indians and advance the interests of their order. No more perfect organization, for a specific object, ever existed. They brought whole tribes under their sway, and held the dusky warriors in New France in thrall. The English settlements in New York, however, kept the powerful Iroquois Confederacy, or Five Nations, like a mountain wall between themselves and the Canadian Indians.

The French Jesuits

Attack on Dover, New Hampshire, 1689

The first blow was struck by the French and their Huron allies in June. On the 27th of that month, they attacked the little settlement of Dover, in New Hampshire, killed a score of persons, and car-

ANDROS A PRISONER IN BOSTON

ried off some thirty captives. In August, another party paddled down the Penobscot and passed along the coast to Pemaquid, now Bremen. Their coming was so unexpected that many of the settlers were killed while at work in the fields, and the fort, after two days' siege, surrendered, only a handful of the defenders escaping to the woods.

In January following, Frontenac, the redoubtable Governor of Canada, sent three hundred French and Indians from Montreal into the province of New York. The snow lay deep on the ground, and the weather was bitterly cold; but the invaders pushed forward for many days on snowshoes, until within sight of Schenectady, where they hid themselves in the woods until late at night. The inhabitants did not dream of danger, and no sentinels were at their posts. Their enemies rushed into the streets at midnight, and began their frightful work. Sixty persons were tomahawked, and the town given to flames. The survivors rushed out in the snow, half-clad, and, after incredible suffering, reached Albany, sixteen miles distant. It is but fair to the French to say that this expedition was undertaken chiefly by way of reprisal for the Iroquois raid upon Montreal, and the massacre by that vengeful tribe of the French at Lachine. It was thought in the French colony that the English settlers of the seaboard had instigated the Iroquois attack, and hence the raid into New York State was a sort of striking back upon the part of the French and their Huron allies. The latter, moreover, had reasons of their own for returning blow for blow, since their own country—the region round Lake Huron—had, forty years before, been devastated by the Iroquois, and the Huron tribe was all but destroyed.

Attack on Schenectady, 1690

The atrocity at Schenectady, with other like outrages, roused New England to the necessity of sharp retaliatory measures. At the suggestion of Massachusetts, a colonial congress met in New York, May 1, 1690, to agree upon concerted plans for the general security. The most important step taken was the decision to invade Canada by way of Lake Champlain to Montreal. Massachusetts arranged to send a naval expedition up the St. Lawrence against Quebec. The fleet was composed of thirty-four vessels, manned by two thousand New Englanders, under the command of Sir William Phips. He advanced with snail-like tardiness and compelled the surrender of Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy, while Nova Scotia offered no resistance at all.

Colonial Congress, 1690

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The progress up the St. Lawrence was so slow that Frontenac was given time to fortify Quebec, and he scornfully rejected Phips's summons to surrender when he appeared before the city and citadel in October. Thereupon Phips returned with the fleet to Boston.

In the mean time the army, under command of a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, had advanced at such a laggard pace that it did not reach the head of Lake Champlain until September. Winthrop sent a force to attack Montreal, but Frontenac easily repulsed it, and the whole army returned to Albany without striking a blow. The invasion of Canada was a disastrous failure.

Failure of the Invasion of Canada, 1690

Sir William Phips now visited England to ask for aid in prosecuting the war against the French and Indians, and to procure a more satisfactory restoration of the charter of Massachusetts taken away by James II. The help desired was not given, but the sovereign issued a new charter which united Massachusetts, Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia, under the name of the "Massachusetts Bay Colony," with Phips as Governor. The charter was unsatisfactory to Massachusetts, for it was far less liberal in its provisions than the old one. Still it was accepted, since no other choice was at the command of the people.

A New Charter Granted to Massachusetts, 1690

The frontier settlements suffered very heavily while King William's war was in progress. It is not worth while to relate all the incidents that occurred; but there is one so strange that it must not be omitted, though it will be found hard to believe the amazing story. One day in March, 1697, Thomas Dustin was working in his field near Haverhill, within thirty miles of Boston, when he saw a war-party of Indians approaching from the woods. Like most of the settlers, Dustin made it a practice to carry his rifle with him at all times, whether in going to church or while at work. The instant he discovered the red men he caught up his gun, unfastened his horse, and rode at full speed for the house, where were his wife, nurse, and eight children, the youngest of whom was only a few days old. He directed all the older children to leave at once and run in the opposite direction from the Indians. They scrambled out as quickly as they could, and he then leaned over the bed to lift out his wife and babe.

An Amazing Story

"No," said his wife, gently pushing him away, "I am unable to go with you. Leave me, and save the children."

It was a fearful moment, but the distracted father had no choice.

He sprang upon his horse again, and quickly overtook the little ones. The Indians were close at hand, and he leveled his gun at them. They shrank back, but he did not fire. He knew that if he discharged the weapon they would rush forward before he could reload and no doubt kill them. By threatening them in this manner, he kept them at a distance until an empty house was reached, when they turned away and left him and his sorely affrighted children.

Meanwhile, the Indians had rushed into the home of Mr. Dustin, where they saw the nurse about to fly with the infant, while the

THOMAS DUSTIN DEFENDING HIS CHILDREN

mother lay in bed resignedly awaiting her fate. The savages ordered her to rise, and moved by her terror, she now did that which until then she did not believe herself capable of doing; she arose and prepared to go with them as their prisoner. Before she was dressed her babe was taken from her and slain, the plundered house was set on fire, and she was compelled to accompany her cruel captors.

Experience of Hannah Dustin, 1697

It was March, and the weather was chilly and damp. The bereaved mother was forced to walk a dozen miles a day, without shoes upon her feet, and to lie down in the woods at night, with no covering except the scant garments she wore. This distressing condition continued day after day, until they reached a small island in the Mer-

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

rimac River, six miles above Concord, N. H., which since that time has borne the name of Dustin Island. At this place lived the Chief, who claimed the two female prisoners as his property. His family consisted of two men, three women, seven children, and a white boy who had been a captive for a number of months.

A Grim Indian Pastime

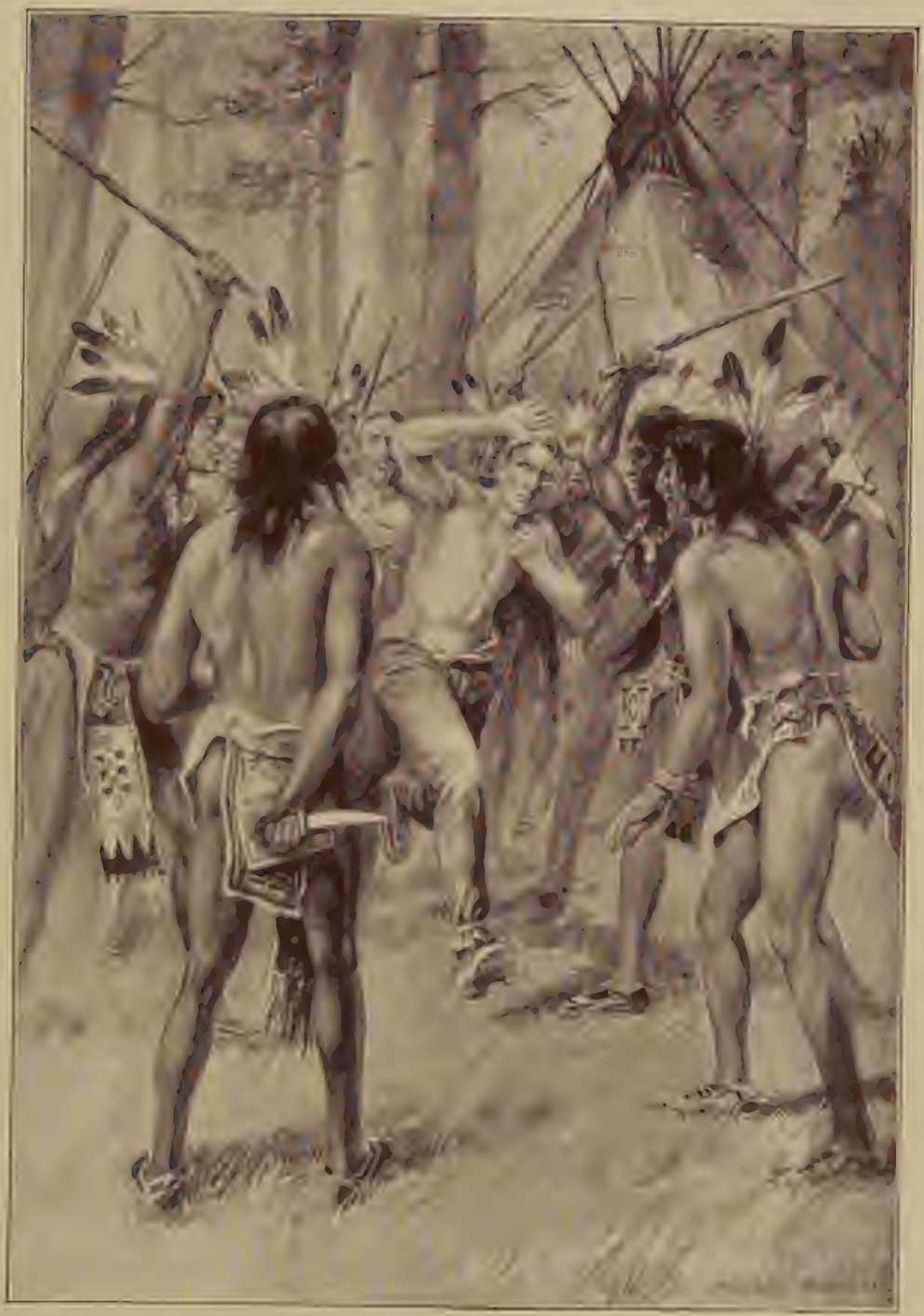
Mrs. Dustin and the nurse were treated fairly well for several days, when they were told that they and the boy were to be taken to a distant village, where they would have to "run the gauntlet." In this terrifying ordeal, the prisoner is deprived of nearly all his clothing, and compelled to pass between two rows of Indians, each provided with a club, knife, hatchet, or other weapon, with which he delivers such blows as he can, while the captive is within reach. The conditions generally are that if he can fight his way to the end of the rows of tormentors his life is spared. Instances are known of a prisoner's survival, but the tormentors very rarely permitted such a conclusion of the grim pastime, for the torture of a prisoner was too exquisite an enjoyment for them to let it slip when it is once within their grasp.

When Mrs. Dustin and her companion learned of the decision of their captors they resolved to die before submitting to it. They formed a plan of escape and made a confidant of the boy, who promised to give all the help he could. He was asked to learn from one of the warriors how to kill a human being with a single blow, and how to take his scalp. The boy gained this information without exciting the suspicion of his captors, and then carefully explained the method to the two women.

Hannah Dustin's Escape

While it was yet dark on the following morning Mrs. Dustin silently awakened the nurse and lad, and all three secured tomahawks without arousing their captors. Then quickly and surely were the blows dealt until it was certain that ten of the sleepers would never awake again. A squaw opened her eyes before they reached her, and, springing to her feet, with her babe clasped to her breast, she dashed off to the woods, and escaped the fate of her companions.

With wonderful coolness the white captives secured some provisions from the lodge, and made their way to the riverside, where lay a number of canoes. They scuttled all save one. Before embarking in this, Mrs. Dustin, recalling the manner in which the Indians had slain her infant and maltreated her, led her companions back to the lodge, where their ten victims were deprived of their scalps. Then



RUNNING THE GAUNTLET

the three entered the single canoe, and, in continual peril, floated down the Merrimac to their homes, where their arrival occasioned as much amazement as if they had risen from the dead.

The happiness of Mrs. Dustin was complete, when she found her husband and the remainder of the children unharmed. Her story, becoming known, awoke a profound interest throughout the colonies. Had she not brought away the ghastly trophies, in the shape of ten scalps, it is not likely that one person in a hundred would have believed her statement, though backed by the nurse and little boy. The General Court of Massachusetts presented the three with fifty pounds as a reward for their heroism, while others sent them valuable testimonials. In 1874, the citizens of New York and New Hampshire erected a fine monument on Dustin Island commemorative of what is certainly one of the most heroic incidents in our colonial history. The inscription perpetuates the names of Hannah Dustin, Mary Neff, and Samuel Leonardson. The public square at Haverhill, Mass., also contains a fine monument to the memory of this intrepid woman.

A Woman's Heroism

A treaty of peace between England and France, which lasted for the next five years, was signed in 1697, at Ryswick, Holland, and King William's war came to a close. The war, which had lasted eight years, was undertaken by England under William III., in concert with the "Grand Alliance"—embracing the European powers of Austria, Spain, and the Netherlands. It had for its object the repression of the political ambitions, absolutism, and religious intolerance of Louis XIV. of France. Its chief incidents in the Old World were, on the one side, the defeat of the allied arms at Steinkirk, in 1692, and on the other, the annihilation, in the same year, of the French fleet off La Hogue; with its pendant issue against the Stuart cause, in 1690, in King William's victory over James II. at the Battle of the Boyne. The strife between England and France in the New World was due less to European complications than to the French-Canadian policy, as represented by the able and vigorous Count Frontenac, of seeking to win over the Iroquois to the French cause, and keeping the members of that great Indian confederacy from taking sides with the English colonists on the Hudson and the New England seaboard. Just then, the Iroquois were showing signs of becoming weary of the long struggle between the two dominant white races, and both were, in consequence, anxious to court so

Close of King William's War

formidable an ally and secure its aid in the war. The result was inevitable, since the French availed themselves of the help of the Huron Indians in their attacks on the Iroquois cantons in the Mohawk valley, as well as in their predatory incursions on the English border settlements. The barbarity of these attacks so incensed the colonists that recourse was had to the expedition against Quebec, which, however, proved abortive, as we have seen, while it accomplished little in the way of Indian pacification. On the death of Frontenac, in 1698, the legacy of Indian strife was but handed on to his successor, De Calliere, and the later French Governors in Canada.

CHAPTER XV

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

[*Authorities*: The present chapter deals chiefly with the witchcraft delusion in New England, and the fanatical outbreak at Salem in 1691-92. Some writers associate the unhappy craze with the austerities of Puritanism; but this is not a fair diagnosis of the matter, since magic divinations and diabolical incantations were common practices in the Old World from early times, and the trial of sorcerers, for "fellowship by covenant with familiar spirits," was very frequent in England during the seventeenth century. The subject, beyond the scope treated of in the following chapter, will be found dealt with by most of the writers on New England history. See especially, also, Upham's "Salem Witchcraft."]

ONE day, in 1688, John Goodwin's daughter, a headstrong girl about a dozen years old, living with her father in Boston, accused their Irish servant of stealing some of the family linen. The mother of the servant turned upon the child, and scolded her so furiously that she tumbled down in a fit, which probably was only pretended. Her brothers and sisters joined her, and were sometimes deaf, and dumb, and blind; then they barked like dogs, purred like cats, and indulged in all sorts of idiocy. They explained these antics by declaring that the Irish woman had bewitched them. It is recorded that not one of these children lost his appetite or failed to sleep with his usual soundness—facts which prove that the performances were inspired by pure waywardness, and the desire to be revenged upon the Irish woman.

Now, at the period about which we are writing, and indeed for centuries before, nearly every one believed in witchcraft. It is astonishing to learn how general was this delusion in the fifteenth,

sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. Those that were drowned, hanged, or burned alive for the crime numbered not hundreds, but tens of thousands. During the sixteenth century, Germany went mad on the subject of witchcraft. It is estimated that for the whole century the number of persons burned to death averaged more than a thousand for each year, reaching an appalling total of over a hundred thousand. Sir Matthew Hale, eminent as one of the greatest judges of England, condemned many persons to death for witchcraft. When the Pilgrims and Puritans crossed the Atlantic, they brought with them a steadfast belief in the delusion, and passed rigid laws for the punishment of those practicing it or suspected of practicing it. The records show that, within twenty years after the settlement of Boston, four persons were executed in the neighborhood of the town for witchcraft.

Early General Belief in Witchcraft

The most strenuous believers were the clergy. Cotton Mather, who was remarkable for his ability, and the leading preacher of colonial times, did more than any other single man to spread the hideous delusion and often to bring death to innocent persons. When he learned of the antics of the Goodwin children, he hastened to their home, for the purpose of exorcising or casting out the devil by means of prayer. He succeeded for the time, and with the help of several ministers from Boston, and a clergyman from Salem, one of the children was rescued, as it was thought, from the power of Satan.

But it was established in the minds of the preachers that a witch was at work, which could be no other than Mother Glover, the old Irish woman. She was charged with the crime and brought before the court, where the miserable creature's bewilderment was accepted as proof of her guilt. She was, therefore, sentenced and hanged as a witch, and Mather and his associates thanked God that stern justice had been done.

Cotton Mather's Agency in Spreading the Delusion

Mather did not consider his duty finished when Mother Glover was executed. He had been pained by the evidence of a tendency towards independent thought among the people. He published pamphlets upon sorcery and witchcraft, and thundered against both from his pulpit. When several attempted to explain the Goodwin incident on natural grounds, he denounced the attempt as blasphemy. He declared that he had thoroughly looked into the subject, and henceforward would consider the denial of witchcraft as a personal insult. Other preachers followed in the horrible path he had chosen

for himself, but they did so "from afar" for none had his prodigious courage and self-assertion.

The young daughter of John Goodwin possessed the artfulness of an imp. The stern old preacher called her into his study, and she

THE WITCHCRAFT DELUSION—SCENE IN COURT

shocked him by falling into convulsions when he knelt in prayer or read a chapter of the Bible; but, with the help of the devil, she was able quietly to peruse the abominable "Quaker books, the Common Prayer, and Papist books."

While the public was filled with the terrifying theme, it was wrought to a still higher pitch by the appearance of a form of epilepsy in Danvers, a section of Salem. The physicians were helpless, and hid their ignorance by ascribing the disease to witchcraft. Samuel Parris took charge of the church in Salem in 1689. He came from Barbadoes, and in the winter of 1691-92, his daughter and niece invited a number of girls to a party at their house. After a time, they sought to amuse themselves by trying their hands at the "black art." They kept the amusement up until they became hysterical, and the parents were alarmed. The doctor was called in, and the solemn verdict of his diagnosis was—witchcraft.

The Outbreak at Danvers

Once more it was necessary to produce a witch. The minister had a strong dislike of a woman named Sarah Good, and he suggested to the children that she was the one for whom they were looking. The "pointer" was eagerly accepted, and Sarah Good was pronounced guilty and hanged! Among the residents of Salem was a crabbed, ill-natured man, fourscore years old, named Giles Corey. He was afflicted with a violent temper, and had been tried and acquitted of several charges. After a time, some one accused him of witchcraft, and he was brought to trial. The stubborn old fellow refused to open his mouth during the proceedings, hoping thereby to escape conviction and save his estate from forfeiture. Hanging was considered too good for him, and he suffered the awful punishment of death by squeezing—the first and last time, so far as is known, that that penalty was inflicted in this country.

Sir William Phips was Governor of Massachusetts at this period. None was more superstitious than he, and he became a tool in the hands of the credulous, though pious, Cotton Mather. He organized a court for the trial of those accused of witchcraft, with Stoughton as chief judge, and Saltonstall and Sewall as assistants. The first case upon which they were called to pass judgment was that of an old woman named Bridget Bishop, who was promptly convicted and hanged, though she declared her innocence to the last.

Governor Phips a Tool in the Hands of Mather

A dispute arose between the Endicott family and Francis Nourse, who lived upon the Endicott farm. The dispute waxed bitter, and each side had its sympathizers. One day several of the Endicott children began rolling about in fits, and accused Mrs. Nourse of having bewitched them. She was one of the gentlest of women, loved and honored by her friends. But all this availed her naught, though

her modest demeanor and Christian deportment so impressed the jury that they pronounced her innocent. The indignant judges, however, sent out the jury again and again, and forced them to declare her guilty. She was hanged on Witch Hill, and her body flung into the pit where lay the other dishonored victims.

By this time Salem had gone insane, and the people of the community seemed to lose their heads. A disgusted constable refused to arrest an accused lady, who he knew was innocent, whereupon he himself was charged with witchcraft, found guilty and executed. If a person were accused and brought to trial, he was allowed to save his life by confessing. Scores availed themselves of this privilege. Others, whose conscience would not permit them to lie, bravely met their death in consequence. A little girl made charges against her grandfather, who was thereupon brought to trial. She then took back what she had said, declaring that there was not a word of truth in her accusation. Inasmuch as she must have told a falsehood in one case or the other, she was punished by being put in prison, she and her parents narrowly escaping hanging. As for the grandfather, he was denied the benefit of doubt, and hanged. In one case, a dog belonging to a wizard behaved so oddly that he fell under suspicion, and was executed side by side with his master.

Spread of the Delusion

Reverend Stephen Burrows had had charge of the church of Salem, and was in many respects a remarkable man. Aside from his devoutly religious character, he possessed a fine physique, with the strength of a Hercules. Sometimes, to amuse his friends, he performed exploits which filled them with wonder, for no one could equal them. Preacher Parris, when he learned of the loving remembrance in which his parishioners held Burrows, was filled with envy. Mr. Burrows had removed to the village of Wells, in Maine, where he was greatly esteemed by his flock. Parris, in his hatred of the good man, charged him with witchcraft, asserting that no human being could perform such feats of strength without Satanic aid. One day, the genial giant, away off in his happy home in Maine, received a summons to come to Salem, to stand trial on the charge of witchcraft. He laughed at the matter, but, kissing his wife and little ones good-by, set out for the distant town which had parted with its senses. That loving family never saw him again. The minister was convicted, and sentenced to be hanged. At the foot of the gallows he declared his innocence in so touching a speech

Case of the Reverend Stephen Burrows

From the Original Drawing by Joseph Lauber

EXECUTION OF THE REVEREND STEPHEN BURROWS

that nearly every one was moved to tears. In his prayer, he besought mercy for his enemies, and so melted the hearts of his hearers that assuredly he would have been rescued but for Cotton Mather, who rode back and forth through the crowd, reminding the people that Satan himself sometimes put on the guise of an angel of light. No persecutors, it is sad to say, were more cruel than the clergy.

This shocking revelry of death could not go on forever. Judge Saltonstall became disgusted and left the bench, but the iron-hearted Sewall never flinched, and kept up the travesty of justice to the end. Increase Mather, president of Harvard College, and father of Cotton Mather, protested. So did other leading clergymen. A prominent merchant declared that many cases were due to delirium tremens, and more than one thoughtful person began to ask himself whether a series of woeful blunders had not been committed.

Extent of the Delusion

That which had most to do with bringing persons to their senses was the startling discovery that no person was safe against execution as a witch or wizard. There was no saying where the lightning would next strike. By the end of September, 1692, twenty persons had been put to death, fifty-five had been terrorized into making false confessions, a hundred and fifty lay in prison awaiting trial, and two hundred more were under accusation.

The wife of Governor Phips, one of the best of women, was accused; ex-Governor Bradstreet's two sons (the Governor never believed in witchcraft), saved their lives by flight, and close relatives of the Mathers were imprisoned on the same charges. A gentleman in Andover was accused of witchcraft by an enemy, whereupon he immediately caused the arrest of the man for defamation of character, and sued him for heavy damages. This vigorous retort pricked the bubble, and cleared away the mist from the people's eyes. Governor Phips ordered the release of all persons under charge of witchcraft, and the legislature of Massachusetts appointed a day for general fasting and supplication, "that God would pardon all the errors of His servants and people in a late tragedy raised among us by Satan and his instruments."

End of the Delusion, 1693

Parris, one of the most malignant of prosecutors, made humble confession of the fearful wrongs he had committed; but the anger against him was so deep that he was obliged to leave Salem. Judge Stoughton spent the remainder of his days in seclusion, sour, morose, and remorseful, but claiming that he had been conscientious in

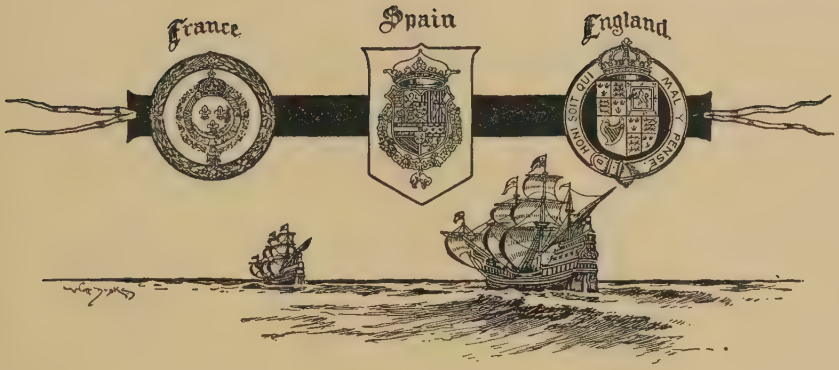
the discharge of his duties. Judge Sewall, pale, and trembling with emotion, arose in the Old South Church in Boston and read a recantation, and once every year locked himself in his room, and passed the hours in prayer and fasting as a penance for the dreadful error he had committed.

In 1692, the Salem jurors published a humble confession of guilt, which concluded with these words: "We do heartily ask forgiveness of you all whom we have justly offended, and do declare, according to our present minds, we would none of us do such things again for the whole world; praying you to accept of this in way of satisfaction for our offense, and that you would bless the inheritance of the Lord, that He may be entreated for the land."

Confession of Salem Jurors

It is difficult to reconcile Cotton Mather's well-known philanthropy with his attitude towards the victims of the witchcraft delusion, save on the ground that credulity and a fanatical religious zeal were essential products of his age. This is emphasized by the collection of incidents regarding the craze, and by the austere comments upon them, which are to be found in his works, published in 1689-1693, on "Memorable Providences relating to Witchcraft and Possessions," and "The Wonders of the Invisible World; being an account of the trials of several witches lately executed in New England, and of several remarkable curiosities therein occurring." Unhappy as was his influence at the period on the witchcraft victims, the purity of his motives is unquestioned, while his life otherwise was most exemplary and useful.*

*The delusion in New England connected with witchcraft, in the latter half of the seventeenth century, of which an account is given in this chapter, was not a merely local disorder, though under the gloomy fanaticism which from the first prevailed in the Massachusetts colony, it for a time took on an acute form of the malady in the persecutions at Salem. It is difficult to-day, as has been said, to account for the prevalence of the craze, and for the form and extent of the delusion, save as the outcome of an epidemic of superstitious fear, born of a period of mental bondage to tyrannous clerical authority, backed by inquisitorial torture and judicial outrage. Like the insanitary conditions of life at the period, it was the product of mediaevalism, and it disappeared only with the dawn of a new and better day. In the Old World, the superstition was more rank and widespread than in the New, while the loss of life due to the fanatical persecutions was appalling. Here and there, a solitary voice was raised to protest against the cruelties which belief in witchcraft engendered; but it was as a cry in the wilderness, so deep-rooted and panic-fed was public belief in human intercourse with Satan. With the dawn of the eighteenth century a more enlightened view began happily to prevail, and the mists of superstition in time were dissipated. The reader who is curious to look further into the matter will find a luminous chapter on the subject in Lecky's "Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe."



CHAPTER XVI

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND

(*Concluded*)

[*Authorities*: For the fuller histories of Queen Anne's war (1702-1713), and of King George's war (1744-1748), with the details of the border fighting between the French on the St. Lawrence and the English colonists on the seaboard, see the general histories of the United States, the local histories of New England, and the English text-books on the "European Colonies in America." Both of these wars were marked by the continuance of hostilities between New France and New England, the struggle being embittered by Indian atrocity, as well as by the efforts of both France and England to wrest from each other dominion in the New World. The earlier conflict witnessed the capture of Port Royal, in 1710, by New England troops, and Hovenden Walker's fruitless invasion of Canada. The latter conflict witnessed the taking of Louisbourg, in 1745, by Massachusetts volunteers, only to see that stronghold in Cape Breton, which guarded the marine highway to New France, revert again to French rule with the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The main incidents in both of these periods of international embroilment will be found narrated in the present chapter. The dual race-strife on this continent was soon now to end in the events which took place in the Ohio Valley, on the shores of Lake Champlain, and on the heights above Quebec.]

THE peace which followed the treaty of Ryswick, as we have already said, did not last long. Charles II. of Spain died in 1700, naming Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., as his successor. This caused jealous alarm among the other nations, who feared that a union of the crowns of France and Spain would follow. If so, those two nations together would gain a dangerous predominance in Europe. England, Holland, and Austria formed a league, which made Archduke Charles of Austria its candidate for the throne of Spain. He could be placed on the throne, however, only by force. So the three nations named declared war against France for supporting the cause of Philip

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

of Anjou, who, however, succeeded to the Spanish throne, as Philip V. His succession led to the founding of the House of Bourbon in Spain.

England had at this time another grievance against France. James II., the exiled King, died in that country, in September, 1701, and Louis recognized his son as the rightful sovereign of England. This son was James Francis Edward, and is known in history as "The Pretender." This act of Louis gave England great offense, for the crown had already been settled upon Anne, who was a Protestant, and the second daughter of James II.

Queen Anne's War, or the War of the Spanish Succession 1702-1713

King William was so incensed that he made immediate preparations for war; but a fall from his horse caused his death, and Anne then came to the throne. She carried out the policy of William by declaring war against France in 1702. The war lasted eleven years, and it is known in our history as Queen Anne's War, though it is sometimes more properly referred to as the War of the Spanish Succession. In the hostilities which followed, the New England settlements were again involved, and suffered greatly from the Indians. The Iroquois, or Five Nations, made a treaty of neutrality with the French and English, and the Indians of Maine did likewise, though the latter, however, were persuaded to break their pledge. The English were satisfied that this treachery was due to the intrigues of the French Jesuits, against whom their resentment was kindled. The Indians assailed the frontier towns of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, committing the most terrible outrages, and sparing no one. The hostility against the Jesuits had become so strong in New York and Massachusetts that those provinces passed laws for their expulsion; but they had already obtained such a hold upon the Indians that it could not readily be loosened. The savages plunged into murder, with its accompanying acts of torture and outrage, with the ardor of fanatics.

Attack on Deerfield, Mass., 1704

In the winter of 1703-4, a band of Indians came down from Canada on snowshoes, and attacked the little town of Deerfield, Massachusetts. The snow lay several feet deep, and the crust was so hard that the fierce hordes walked over the palisades in the darkness as if they did not exist, and were upon the defenseless people before they dreamed of danger. Down to the year 1848, a large building was standing in Deerfield which was known as the "Indian House." This strong structure held out for a time, but the Indians chopped an opening in the massive door with their tomahawks, and, thrusting

a musket through, discharged it. The bullet killed a woman in the act of rising from her bed. The door, the bullet, and many other interesting relics may be seen to-day in the Deerfield museum. The "Indian House" was used by the captors as headquarters, and as a rendezvous for the marauders with their prisoners, and every other building, except the chapel, was laid in ruins. Forty people were killed, and more than a hundred carried off captives to Canada.

ATTACK ON DEERFIELD

The Family of Reverend Williams

One of the touching incidents connected with the raid upon Deerfield was the experience of the family of the Reverend John Williams, the village pastor. A servant and two of his children were slain on their own threshold, and he and his wife and five remaining children set out on their trying journey to Canada. The wife became so worn out on the way that, to end the bother, one of the Indians brained her with his tomahawk. The remainder of the family were held captives in Canada for two years, when they were ransomed by their friends and allowed to return home.

The Indians, it seems, however, had become so attached to a little

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

daughter of the clergyman, ten years old, that they would not part with her. In time, she formed an affection for her captors, and, when she grew to womanhood, married one of the warriors. Probably, a longing to see the home of her childhood led her, when she was the mother of several children, to visit Deerfield. As may well be imagined, her coming caused a stir in the little town, and elicited profound emotion among her relatives. Of course, all thought that she had returned to spend the remainder of her days with them, but when questioned on the point she shook her head.

Remains an Indian

"I am an Indian," she gently replied; "I love my folk and my own race, but I love my husband and my children more. With them I shall live and die." So she returned to Canada, and was seen no more by those who would have been glad to detain her. It is said that the charming story of Fenimore Cooper, "The Wept of Wish-ton-Wish" was founded on this incident.

The experience of Deerfield may be taken as a type of what befell many other settlements in Maine and New Hampshire. The cruelties became so great that New England, in 1707, determined upon an aggressive campaign. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, therefore, fitted out an expedition for the invasion of Canada. A thousand men, commanded by Colonel Marsh, sailed from Nantucket. They proceeded under the convoy of a British man-of-war, and their object was the capture of Acadia, now better known as the Nova Scotia peninsula. Arriving at Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy, they found the French fully prepared, and were obliged to abandon the enterprise. Three years later, another expedition was sent out by New England, New York, and New Jersey. It sailed from Boston, with the British fleet of thirty-six vessels. Port Royal surrendered, October 13, and its name was changed to Annapolis, in compliment to Queen Anne.

Capture of Port Royal, N. S., 1710

This not very brilliant success occasioned a more formidable attempt to invade Canada. In June, 1711, fifteen ships-of-war, forty transports, and six storeships, under Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker, arrived in the port of Boston. New England lost no time in raising an additional force, while another army was raised for the capture of Montreal. The expedition, under command of Admiral Walker, numbered seven thousand men, but the incompetency of that leader led to the loss of eight vessels, one thousand men, and finally the abandonment of the enterprise. The land forces learned of the dis-

Failure of the Invasion of Canada, 1711

aster to the fleet before they had advanced far enough to strike a blow, and they also went back to their homes.

For some time negotiations looking to peace had been going on. These were concluded at Utrecht (*U'trekt*), Holland, March 13, 1713. By the terms of the treaty, the fisheries of Newfoundland passed under the control of England, to which country also were ceded Labrador, Hudson Bay, and Acadia or Nova Scotia.

Peace was now undisturbed for thirty-one years. Charles VI., of Austria, died in 1740, and in the strife over the succession the principal European nations became involved. It followed naturally that in the new complications France and England found themselves arrayed against each other. This war, which lasted from 1744 to 1748, is known in our history as King George's War (because George II. was then King of England), and in Europe as the War of the Austrian Succession.

King George's War, 1744-1748

It so happened that the French colonists learned of the breaking out of war before it was known to the subjects of the English crown. The French decided to "take time by the forelock" and promptly moved against Nova Scotia. The island of Canso was seized without resistance, the fort and dwellings burned, and the garrison made prisoners. Some months afterwards, the latter were paroled and sent to Boston. The information which they took home led to the remarkable campaign against Louisbourg. This fortress was well called "The Dunkirk of America." It inclosed the principal town of Cape Breton in massive and elaborate fortifications. So extensive indeed were they, that to walk around the ramparts, one would have to travel more than two miles. France expended six million dollars, and was engaged twenty-five years, in erecting the fortress and other formidable defenses of Louisbourg.

An Impregnable Fortress

It would seem that the attempt to capture this almost impregnable French stronghold was folly, and yet there was more than one reason which led Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, to believe that it could be done. The French general in command was known to be old, and of little capacity; the garrison stores were nearly exhausted; and the men were in a state of dissatisfaction bordering on mutiny. The Massachusetts legislature declared against the project; but Governor Shirley would not abandon it. He was not only a statesman, but an able soldier, and his enthusiastic ardor finally brought the legislature around and secured the help of other colonies, as well

From the Original Drawing by Warren Sheppard

NAVAL ENGAGEMENT IN GABARUS BAY

as the countenance and aid of England. His own province furnished three thousand equipped soldiers; Connecticut, five hundred and sixteen; New Hampshire, three hundred and four; and Rhode Island, three hundred. The latter, however, sailed too late to take part in the siege. Commodore Warren, with a fleet from the West Indies, joined the expedition at Canso.

The New England troops sailed from Boston in April, 1745, under command of William Pepperell, a wealthy merchant of Kittery, Maine, who was afterwards made a baronet for his services. Roger Wolcott, Lieutenant-Governor of Connecticut, was second in command. This force landed, May 11, in Gabarus Bay, on the east coast of Cape Breton. The appearance of so imposing an array caused consternation in Louisbourg, whose garrison was surprised and intimidated. The alarm-bells were rung, and cannon fired to warn the people on the island of their danger. A detachment of four hundred troops promptly moved against the royal battery, burning all the buildings within reach. The French gunners spiked their cannon and retreated, the battery immediately falling into the possession of the New Englanders, who unspiked and afterwards made excellent use of the guns.

Siege and Capture of Louisbourg, 1745

The task before the besiegers seemed well-nigh impossible of accomplishment. The solid stone walls of the fortress were forty feet thick at the base and thirty feet high, while the surrounding ditch, filled with water, was eighty feet wide. Mounted on the walls were more than a hundred cannon and eighty swivels and mortars. The artillery on the bastions swept all the approaches to the walls; the garrison numbered sixteen hundred men. Of heavy artillery the besiegers had only eighteen cannon and three mortars. The siege guns were placed on sleds, and with great labor dragged across a yielding swamp. The spirits of all were soon heightened, however, by the capture, by Commodore Warren, of a French ship of seventy-four guns, and an immense quantity of military stores, together with five hundred and sixty men. Reinforcements, moreover, continued to arrive, to add to the encouraging prospects.

Strong Courage against Strong Armament

The ardor of the assailants could not be quenched. They were stirred by patriotism and by a deep religious fervor, and saw the hand of God in everything that took place. George Whitefield, the famous Methodist preacher, gave to the New Hampshire troops the motto which they inscribed on their banners—*Nil desperandum,*

Christo duce—"Never despair, Christ being the leader," thus making the enterprise, as it has been termed, a sort of Puritan crusade.

Learning of the probable arrival of French ships with reinforcements, a combined attack was made by the land and naval forces on June 17. Governor Duchambon (*du-sham'bon*), the French commander, seeing that defeat was certain, asked Pepperell for terms of capitulation. These were so generous that they were instantly accepted, and Pepperell marched into the fortress at the head of his volunteers, Shirley following and receiving the keys of the fort.*

The Capture of Louisbourg

The news of the capture of Louisbourg, with its vast military stores, caused great rejoicing throughout the colonies. Thousands of bonfires were kindled and bells set ringing, while the clergy declared that the interposition was a direct one, on the part of Heaven, in their favor. England was delighted at the victory; while France, on the contrary, was so humiliated that, for a time, she could scarcely credit the astounding news. Then she roused herself to strike a crushing blow in return. She determined not only to recover the lost fortress, but to desolate the English settlements from Maine to Florida. For this purpose, an immense and fully equipped fleet was sent to Cape Breton, under command of the Duke d'Anville. A great storm, however, dispersed and wrecked several of the vessels, and hundreds of men died from disease. Before the question of attack was settled, the commander himself died so suddenly that many believed he had committed suicide. His successor was so mortified at the miscarriage of the design that he killed kimself.

France Plans Revenge

*This remarkable and spirited enterprise, on the part of the New England colonists, has hardly received at the hands of historians the meed of honor which it so richly deserves. Undesignedly, perhaps, the glory of the first expedition against the great French stronghold has been eclipsed by that of the second, probably, for the reason that the siege and capture of Louisbourg by Boscawen and Wolfe, thirteen years later, was more decisive in its results. This fact in no way, however, detracts from the importance of the achievement under Shirley and Pepperell, in bringing about the capitulation, by a force of 4,000 raw and inexperienced New England militia, aided by the British West Indian fleet, of so impregnable a fortress, garrisoned by nearly 23,000 French soldiery, including 750 veterans of the empire, and supported by a large force of marines and seamen, which manned the French shipping in the harbor. Well might the historian Smollett designate the capture of Louisbourg "the most important achievement of the war of 1745." To-day desolation marks the site of the once formidable stronghold. "If you ever visit Louisbourg," says a local writer, "you will observe a patch of greensward on Point Rochfort—the site of the old burying-ground. Beneath it lie the ashes of hundreds of brave New Englanders. No monument marks the sacred spot; but the waves of the restless ocean, in calm or storm, sing an everlasting requiem over the graves of the departed heroes."

Again the New Englanders saw the arm of God stretched forth in their behalf, and fervent thanks, therefore, went up from every corner of the land.

In the course of the following year, there were omens of peace which caused a lull in military operations. In October, 1748, the treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle (*aiks'-lah-sha-pell''*) brought King George's war to an end; but the termination was anything but satisfactory to the New Englanders, for the terms required the restoration of all property and territory that had been captured. Thus Cape Breton and the fortress of Louisbourg passed once more into the possession of France, and the valor of the colonial troops was deprived of all reward.

Treaty of Peace Signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748

The action of England following upon the victory sowed the seeds of discontent, which bore their fruitage a quarter of a century later. Every penny of the prize-money, amounting to three million dollars, was distributed among the men of Commodore Warren's fleet, and when the troops were disbanded at Louisbourg, Governor Shirley had to send the funds to bring them home. The colonies demanded payment from the mother country for the heavy expenses to which they had been subjected, and England reluctantly gave them a million dollars.

The reader has now been apprised of the principal events in the history of the New England colonies down to the middle of the eighteenth century. It may be said that Massachusetts for a time was New England, as Virginia was the South. Through trial, hardship, famine, suffering, and war, the sturdy Puritan province of Massachusetts and the Independent settlement—the first in New England—of Plymouth, steadily advanced in population, wealth, and prosperity. The weak colonies of Maine and New Hampshire were taken under her protection; while she sent emigrants (sometimes forcibly) to build up the adjoining provinces. Massachusetts had become a great and powerful commonwealth, whose advancement in commerce, in trade, in war, and in thought and education, led her, like a young giant, to feel and know her own strength.

Dominance of Massachusetts and Virginia

When every town, and almost every village and hamlet, in our country has in later days one or more newspapers, in which the news from the four quarters of the globe is given, it is interesting to learn something about the first journals published in the early colonies that now in part compose the United States. The pioneer in this enterprise was *Public Occurrences, both Foreign and Domestic*, which

was issued in Boston as long ago as September, 1690. Benjamin Harris was the publisher, and only a single number appeared, because the royal authorities refused to license it. It was, therefore, of no importance, and hence *The Boston News-Letter* is generally credited with being the pioneer American newspaper. It first appeared in April, 1704, with John Campbell as publisher.

The First Newspapers Published in the Colonies

The second newspaper was *The Gazette*, of Boston. William Brooker was the publisher, and the first issue was in December, 1719. On the succeeding day, Andrew Bradford published in Philadelphia the first number of *The American Weekly Mercury*. James Franklin, of Boston, the elder brother of the famous philosopher, Benjamin Franklin, began the publication of *The New England Courant*, in August, 1721.

The pioneer paper in the city of New York was *The New York Gazette*, first issued by William Bradford, October 23, 1725. *The Daily Advertiser*, published in Philadelphia in 1785, was the first daily journal. All these papers were small affairs, with little news, and such as related to Europe was two or three months old.*

Founding of Yale College, 1702

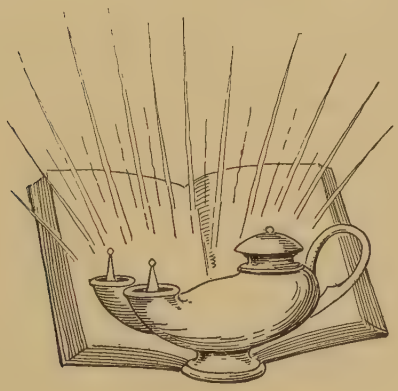
It was in the year 1700 that ten ministers came together in a house in the village of Bradford, near New Haven. They met by appointment, and each carried several volumes, which were laid on a table in the middle of the room. They were intended as a donation for founding a college, which was opened at Saybrook, in 1702. Fifteen years later, the institution was removed to New Haven. Its most liberal patron, during its infancy, was Elihu Yale, in whose honor this celebrated college was named.

Prosperity of Connecticut and Rhode Island

Connecticut enjoyed great prosperity during the first half of the eighteenth century. She was not plagued by war, was more liberal in sentiment than Massachusetts, and her people were enterprising

*Recent investigation seems to prove that technically America's first newspaper was a century older than the one generally accepted as the pioneer. It was on St. Croix Island, a few miles below the present city of Calais, Maine, that the *Master William* was published during the winter of 1604-1605, by the members of the French expedition under De Monts and Champlain. The latter makes special mention of the *Master William*. He says it was prepared from time to time "by the bright spirits of the party" to while away the tedium of the long and severe winter. It was passed around in written, not printed, form among the 79 subscribers—all dead heads. There were no women or children among them. A special edition appeared on Christmas, 1604. Although we have no means of proving the number of issues we are sure that the *Master William* was enjoyed by its readers. Nearly one-half of them died from the scurvy, and the survivors were glad to leave the inhospitable region, as soon as the weather permitted.

and industrious. Rhode Island, as will be recalled, included the colony of Rhode Island and the Providence Plantations, which were refused admission to the New England League in 1643. To prevent the settlements being placed under the jurisdiction of Plymouth, Roger Williams went to England in 1654, and secured a confirmation of the charter. Charles II. became King in 1660, and the Rhode Islanders, with much fear and trembling, asked him to renew the charter granted by his predecessor. To their delight he did so, in 1662, and the colony lived under the provisions of this charter for sixty years after the close of the Revolutionary War.



From the Original Drawing by F. C. Martin

ARRIVAL OF GOVERNOR CARTERET

CHAPTER XVII

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF NEW JERSEY

[*Authorities*: Prior to 1664, the history of what is now New Jersey, must be sought in the works that deal with the New Netherlands and the Middle Colonies, chiefly under Dutch and English administration. Subsequent to the above period, and while a royal colony, New Jersey annals are related specially in such works as Mulford's history, and, incidentally, in all the general authorities. See, also, such works as deal with the Quaker brotherhood, or Society of Friends. Among the contemporary accounts that recite the doings of the latter sect, Sewell's "History of the Quakers" should be consulted.]

IT should not be forgotten that the present State of New Jersey was at first a part of New Netherland. At about the time that the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, some Dutch traders wandered across the North River into New Jersey and established a post near Bergen. It cannot, however, be considered a settlement. The Hollanders as a people are not very alert in their movements. They did not try to found colonies in America until long after rival nations had done so, and even then they showed no haste in founding homes on the western side of the Hudson.

In 1623, a French sea-captain tried to set up the arms of his country on the Delaware, whereupon Captain Cornelius Jacobsen May, the first director in America of the Dutch West India Company, built Fort Nassau, at the mouth of Timber Creek, a few miles below Camden, and induced several families of Walloons to locate near-by. Cape May, the well-known summer resort of New Jersey, was named in compliment to Captain May. The Walloons settled where Gloucester now stands. After a long time, the settlement—the oldest in the State—died, to spring into life many years afterwards and grow into a flourishing town. There were scattered dwellings here and

there, but no lasting settlement was made in New Jersey until the latter half of the seventeenth century.

All of New Netherland lying between the Hudson and the Delaware, to forty degrees and forty-one minutes north, having been granted by Charles II. to his brother, the Duke of York, was assigned by him, in 1664, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, proprietors of Carolina. The province was named New Caesarea, or New Jersey, in compliment to Carteret's brave defense of the Island of Jersey, in 1649, against the soldiers of Cromwell. Berkeley was a brother of the tyrannical Governor of Virginia, and had been the instructor of the Duke of York in his youth, while Carteret was the treasurer of the Admiralty.

Grant to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, 1664

Berkeley and Carteret drew up a liberal constitution for the new province, which provided for a Governor and Council, named by the proprietors, and by representatives chosen by the people, who were to meet annually, and with the Governor and Council formed a general assembly for the local government. With a view to encourage immigration, one hundred and fifty acres of land were promised to every freeman and able-bodied man-servant who came to the province at the same time with the first Governor, and each of whom was provided with a good musket, and provisions for six months. A similar present was given to every person sending such servants, and half the grant-area of land to any one sending a weaker servant or slave, of either sex, over fourteen years of age. To those who did not go with the Governor, but settled in the province previous to 1665, one hundred and twenty acres of land were promised on like conditions. Captain Philip Carteret, a cousin of Sir George, was appointed Governor of the new province, and arrived in June, 1664, with about thirty immigrants. He was cordially welcomed by Governor Nicolls at New York, who, however, was amazed that the Duke of York should have parted with what the Governor considered the most valuable part of his domain.

Arrival of Governor Carteret, 1665

Governor Carteret's entrance into his province was made in picturesque fashion. It was the month of August, and he carried a hoe over his shoulder, in proof that he intended to become a planter among his people, who followed in his lead. He selected a spot not far inland, which he named Elizabethtown, in honor of Lady Elizabeth, the wife of Sir George Carteret. When thus christened it consisted of four log-cabins, and was long the

capital of the province. Later it was united to Elizabeth, giving up its distinctive name at the time the union took place.

A number of settlers from Milford, Connecticut, purchased the site of Newark from the Indians in 1666. They were soon joined by other immigrants, who named the settlement Newark, in compliment to their first pastor, Abraham Pierson, whose home in England had the same name. Agents were sent to England to further immigration. There was much to favor the prosperity of New Jersey. Its government was liberal, its ruler popular, and (unlike nearly every other colony) it had no trouble with the Indians.

Among the settlers attracted to the province were a number from New Haven, who made their homes on the banks of the Passaic. Others also came in, and New Jersey was fairly started on its prosperous career, when in 1668, the first legislative assembly met at Elizabethtown. All went well for two years, and then came the first disturbance. In 1670, the quit-rents of a halfpenny for each acre of land fell due, and payment was demanded. The people were indignant. Many had bought their land of the Indians, before the arrival of Carteret, and they complained, not that the demand was oppressive, but that it was unjust. The settlers who had not this excuse united with those who had, and for two years the payment of rents was refused, and the province turned topsy-turvy. A meeting of the representatives of the discontented people was held at Elizabethtown in May, 1672. That body compelled Philip Carteret to give up his governorship and leave the province, and chose James Carteret, a dissolute son of one of the proprietors, in his place. Meanwhile, Philip, the rightful Governor, having appointed a deputy, sailed for England to lay his case before the proprietors. While the latter were making preparations to bring the province back to its allegiance, the Dutch recaptured New Netherland (August, 1673), and a year and a quarter passed before it was receded to England. Then the Duke of York received a new charter from the King and named Edmund Andros Governor of the whole domain.

The First Legislative Assembly

It took James Carteret but a short time to prove his worthlessness. The disgusted people turned him out of office, and acknowledged Captain Berry, Philip's deputy, as Governor. James Carteret went to Virginia, from which colony he returned some years later to New Jersey, and wandered about the country like an abject vagrant or beggar. Philip Carteret resumed the Governorship in 1675 under

A Governor Becomes a Beggar

Andros, and by his course made himself more popular than before. The collection of quit-rents was postponed indefinitely; the government was made fully representative; liberty of conscience was guaranteed; and all once more became prosperous.

Lord Berkeley, however, lost patience because of the annoyances and losses he continually suffered, and he now sold his interest in New Jersey to John Fenwick and Edward Byllinge, two English Quakers, for five thousand dollars. Fenwick, with a number of immigrants, mostly of his sect, sailed for the colony, and began a settlement on the Delaware, which they named Salem. Carteret retained the eastern part of New Jersey, and the Quakers the western part. The division of the province into East and West Jersey was made July 1, 1676, and the distinction is still to some extent preserved in the State. The people of West Jersey were given a liberal constitution, March 13, 1677, and several hundred Quakers soon settled below the Raritan. Andros demanded that they should acknowledge the authority of the Duke of York, but this they refused. The dispute was referred to Sir William Jones, who decided in favor of the Quakers. Andros thereupon gave up both provinces.

Sale of New Jersey to Quakers, 1675

The early ownership of New Jersey now became so involved that one has to study it carefully to gain a clear idea of its colonial history. Byllinge, the principal proprietor, soon after Fenwick went to America, became bankrupt, and assigned his interest in New Jersey to William Penn and others, to be sold for the benefit of his creditors. This was done, and the division, as already stated, was made July 1, 1676.

The first popular assembly in West Jersey convened at Salem in November, 1681, and, being Quakers, gave the people a liberal code of laws. One of these was that in all criminal cases, except murder, treason, and theft, the aggrieved person had the right, if he wished, to pardon the offender.

First Popular Assembly in West Jersey, 1681

Carteret died in 1679, and his trustees offered East Jersey for sale. The purchasers were William Penn and eleven of his associates. A new charter was obtained, February, 1682, and, in the following July, Robert Barclay, an eminent Quaker preacher, and one of the best of men, was appointed Governor for life. An extensive immigration of persons of his sect followed from England and Scotland, as well as from New England. Barclay ruled with wisdom until his death in 1690. When the Duke of York became King, the kindness which

he had shown towards his American provinces was changed to an impolitic severity.

The expulsion of Andros from the colonies took place in 1689, and for a dozen years New Jersey got on without any regular form of government. Finally, the confusion and the losses so disgusted the proprietors that they made the proposition to surrender their rights of civil jurisdiction to the crown, retaining only the simple ownership of the land. This offer was accepted and carried out in 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as a royal province.

East and West Jersey United, 1702

Queen Anne at that time was the ruler of England. She appointed her uncle, Sir Edward Hyde (Lord Cornbury), Governor of the province. We have learned in another place something about this rogue, who had the audacity as well as the bad taste to appear in public dressed in women's clothing. There was no degrading vice of which a man is capable that did not attach to him, and he gloried in his shame. No more striking example of the impolicy of English modes of appointment, or crown nominations to office, can be adduced than that of Sir Edward Hyde, who was Governor of New York as well as of New Jersey. His word was the supreme law of the land. No matter to what length he carried his shameless crimes and misrule, no one in America could interfere with him. The most that the citizens could do, in the way of making and executing the laws, was humbly to recommend certain measures to their Governor. Liberty of conscience was refused to the Roman Catholics, who were treated with the utmost harshness. What favors the knave had to bestow went to the members of the Church of England, for he was, professedly at least, a staunch churchman. At this late day, it is hard to understand how the freemen of New Jersey submitted so long to the misrule of such a Governor. Printing in the province was permitted only by royal license, and the slave-trade, because it was profitable, was encouraged. The condition of the people themselves was little better than that of slavery. Hyde ruled New York and New Jersey for seven years, during which he stole public money, and made so execrable a Governor that the Queen, in 1708, was compelled to recall him. It has been said that he was cast into prison for debt, where he was compelled to stay until the death of his father made him Lord Cornbury. Even at the beginning of the twentieth century no member of the House of Lords could be arrested for debt, and this extraordinary type of ruler therefore went free of arrest.

A Royal Governor

PERIOD II
COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758

It must be remembered that, although New Jersey was a dependency of New York and was ruled by the same Governor, she had her own legislative assembly. This state of affairs continued until 1738, when Lewis Morris, her Chief Justice, put forth his influence to secure its full independence of New York. His efforts were successful, for, in the year named, New Jersey became a separate royal province, with its own Governor, as well as house of assembly. Chief

New Jersey made Independent of New York, 1738

GOVERNOR HYDE MASQUERADING IN WOMAN'S GARB

Justice Morris was the first Governor after the province was detached from New York, and made a wise and excellent ruler. From that time down to the Revolution, the history of New Jersey was uneventful. Her last Royal Governor was William Franklin, a son of the famous Benjamin Franklin. He was appointed in 1763, and was so strong and bitter a Tory that the Continental Congress removed him from office, in the summer of 1776. He then proceeded to England, where he died in 1813.

The Last Crown Governor of New Jersey, 1763-1776

CHAPTER XVIII

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF MARYLAND

[*Authorities*: Maryland's history, for over the long period of a hundred years, was, on the whole, an auspicious and unvexed one, thanks to the astuteness and large-mindedness of its founder, Lord Baltimore, and the successors of his family, who were its lords-proprietor. The colony, happily, had few Indian troubles to interfere with its peace; while the policy of religious toleration, which made it the asylum of Protestant and Catholic alike, attracted many to its hospitable shores, and made prosperous its path, save for the brief period of strife with Clayborne and his Virginian following, and later on, with Coode and his fanatical allies. Even through the period of civil war in England, its history was in the main unchecckered. The chief authorities are the contemporary works: Baltimore's "Relation of Maryland," and Alsop's "Province of Maryland," together with Lodge's "English Colonies," the general histories of the United States, and, especially, Browne's "Maryland," in the American Commonwealth Series. Attention is also directed to the comprehensive work, edited by members of Johns Hopkins University, and published in 1893 by the State, entitled "Maryland: Its Resources, Industries and Institutions."]

SIR GEORGE CALVERT was a courtier at the court of the English King James I., who knighted him in 1617, and two years later commissioned him one of his chief secretaries of state. Calvert was a brilliant young man, a favorite of the monarch, and much interested in the settlement of foreign countries, as was shown by his membership, not only of the East India Company, but of the London Company which colonized Virginia. Some time later, Calvert became a Roman Catholic, and, in consequence, was obliged to resign his secretaryship in 1624. The following year the King made him an Irish peer, creating him Baron of Baltimore, in the County of Longford. This took place only a few weeks before the death of King James.

The Catholics of England suffered much persecution at that period, and Lord Baltimore's heart was moved to seek a refuge in

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some other country for those of his own faith. He had made an attempt to plant a colony in Newfoundland, but the rigor of the climate and the barrenness of the soil caused him to abandon his purpose, and he obtained a patent from Charles I., for a domain south of the James River. The Virginia settlers, however, protested so strongly that he surrendered the new charter, and accepted another, which gave him a district which he named Maryland, in honor of Henrietta Maria, the consort of Charles. It included the present states of Maryland, Delaware, and a part of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Before the royal seal was attached to the patent, Lord Baltimore died, and his son, Cecil, succeeded to his title and estates. The latter was in sympathy with his father's plans, and received the patent, which was dated June 20, 1632.

The Grant of Maryland

The constitution issuing out of the terms of this patent was the most remarkable of any hitherto granted to an English colony. No settlers had ever received so great and democratic privileges. The Lords Baltimore were left free to govern the province as they chose, without accounting to their sovereign. For the first time, a share in legislation was secured to the citizen. Not only were full political rights guaranteed to the settlers, but there was no discrimination in favor of or against any religious sect. This provision was liberal, just and wise in a worldly sense; for many of those whom the Puritans of New England persecuted, and the churchmen of Virginia harried, found rest and full freedom of conscience in Maryland. Thither, therefore, many of them went, almost as soon as the colony was established.

A Liberal Constitution

Cecil Calvert appointed Leonard, his half-brother, Governor, and about three hundred servants and laborers, and twenty "gentlemen" sailed with him from Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, November 22, 1633. Their vessel was named *The Ark*, and was accompanied by a pinnace named *The Dove*. After an unusually stormy voyage, during which the two vessels were separated for a long time, Point Comfort was sighted, February 24, 1634. The immigrants sailed up the James to Jamestown, where they were received by Governor Harvey. The Virginians felt anything but pleased at the grant to Lord Baltimore, as it infringed, as they thought, upon their own domain; but the credentials of the nobleman could not be questioned, besides which he and Governor Harvey were personal friends. The visitors remained for more than a week at Jamestown, where they

Arrival at Point Comfort, 1634

were entertained with great hospitality. Then they sailed for the Chesapeake, and entered the mouth of the Potomac. All were charmed with the scenery. It was early spring, and the wooded shores were agleam with bursting bud and blossom; the soft winds were laden with the fragrance of flowers; and the balmy skies seemed never to have been fretted by storm. Here and there the little Indian canoes skimmed like swallows across the broad stream, or

LANDING OF GOVERNOR CALVERT AND THE MARYLAND COLONISTS

darted about among the cool shadows of the shore; while at night the camp-fires blazed amid the trees and threw their glow far out on the placid river.

Ceremonies Attending the Landing

On March 25, the immigrants went ashore on a small island, some thirty miles above the mouth of the Potomac. Solemn religious ceremonies took place, including the administration of the Lord's Supper, and Governor Calvert led the procession to an elevation, where they all kneeled around a large cross fashioned from a tree, and the Roman Catholics recited the "Litanies of the Sacred Cross." The Indians, grouped around, looked upon the strange

scene with awe and wonderment. If the red men felt any misgivings regarding their visitors, these were soon removed by the course pursued by Calvert. He paid a visit to the Chief, and treated him with great consideration. He then agreed upon a treaty of peace with him, and secured his aid in quieting the fears of the neighboring tribes. An English trader was met at Piscataway, who had lived a number of years among the Indians, and he gave much help in winning their good-will towards the white men.

Settlement of Maryland 1634

The settlers moved down the stream to the mouth of a river which they named the St. George. The expansion at the entrance was called St. Mary's, a name now applied to the whole river. Disembarking, the colonists advanced a mile or more inland, to the spot where they decided to make their settlement. The situation could not have been better chosen. Cool springs were numerous, the river bank was elevated, the climate healthful, and a charming valley lay within a half-mile of the stream.

Calvert had the authority of his sovereign to take the land without asking permission of the Indians, but he entertained no thought of so unjust a course. His first act was to admit their ownership by buying about thirty miles of territory, including the native village, for which he paid so many trinkets and agricultural implements that the red men must have felt that they had the best of the bargain. The Indians gave up one-half of their village to the use of the colonists, and agreed to let them have a moiety of their crops until such time as they could plant for themselves. They lived side by side for months, like a band of brothers. They hunted together, slept in the same wigwams, and taught each other many useful things.

Just Treatment for the Indians

The Indians showed the white men how to make the delicious "pone" bread, how best to cultivate maize, and the most successful manner of hunting wild game; while the English housewives gave the squaws valuable lessons in cookery. The red men were not wholly unselfish in this, for they held the powerful Susquehanna tribe in the north in much dread, but knew that with the help of the settlers they were invincible against them.

As they had agreed to do, the Indians moved out of their village at the end of harvest time, and turned it over to their pale-face brothers. Maryland was the only colony that furnished not merely the land, but the dwellings for the colonists who first settled upon the soil. Formal possession of the territory was taken by Calvert, March 27, 1634.

It is impossible to imagine conditions more favorable for settlement than those of Maryland. The Indians, as we have said, were friendly; the climate was healthful; the soil fertile; the people industrious; and the form of government of the most liberal character.

A year after the settlement of St. Mary's, as the new town was named, a legislative assembly met there, composed of all the freemen. Increasing immigration made this method too unwieldy, so, in 1639, a representative government was established.

Representative Government Established, 1639

GOVERNOR CALVERT'S CAPTURE OF CLAYBORNE'S VESSEL

The Maryland settlers, as has been shown, were treated hospitably at Jamestown, but, for all that, the Virginians were resentful, since they looked upon the incoming of the colonists as an intrusion upon their domain, and it was from that quarter the first trouble came. There was a member of the Virginia council, by the name of William Clayborne, who had received from the Governor of the province authority to explore the waters of Chesapeake Bay beyond the 34th degree of north latitude. In 1631, Clayborne obtained royal permission to press discoveries in that region, and to open a trade with the natives. He established a trading-post on Kent Island, in the

Trouble with William Clayborne of Virginia

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

Chesapeake, near Annapolis, and insisted that this post should be exempt from the jurisdiction of Maryland, because his grant was older. The Virginia Assembly favored his view, but Calvert ordered Clayborne to take the oath of allegiance, or leave the province. He refused to do either, and sent an armed vessel into the Chesapeake to protect his interests.

Calvert was on the watch, and the vessel, after a skirmish, was captured, but Clayborne hurried across the Virginia line, and strove to incite the Indians against the Marylanders, saying that they were Spaniards, who only awaited a favorable time to massacre them. The Maryland legislature, in 1638, passed a bill depriving Clayborne of his civil rights and his property within its jurisdiction. Clayborne appealed to the King, who decided against him, and for several years he made no more trouble. The result of Clayborne's tampering with the Indians appeared when the Susquehannas began a series of attacks on the outlying settlements. The militia was organized and sent against them in 1642; but after two years of warfare, a treaty of peace was signed, and hostilities ceased.

Indian Troubles, 1642-1644

We have referred to the liberal constitution of Maryland as framed by the Roman Catholics. Its liberality was shown, not merely in the instrument itself, but in the fact that a number of the members of the assembly were Protestants. Lord Baltimore was worldly wise, and during the bitter religious strife in England, sought to keep on good terms with the Parliament, which there was reason to fear would soon triumph over the King. The outlook was so threatening that, in 1643, the Governor sailed for England to consult his brother, and while he was gone he left Giles Brent as his deputy.

About the same time, King Charles, at Oxford, authorized Lord Baltimore to take possession of any ships from London owned by the Parliamentary, or Cromwellian, party. Such a vessel was seized, some months later, at St. Mary's, and Richard Ingle, its commander, fled to England. The incident stirred up bad feeling in Maryland and Virginia, and intensified the anger between the Catholics and the Protestants. Clayborne, who was life-treasurer of Virginia, used the opportunity to revenge himself upon Lord Baltimore. He found little trouble in inciting the Parliamentary faction in the Maryland legislature to rebellion, and, having done so, took possession again of his little settlement on Kent Island. Upon Calvert's return, in 1644, he found matters topsy-turvy. Richard Ingle soon arrived with au-

Insurrection by the Parliamentary Faction 1644

thority from Parliament to make reprisals upon the property of the royalists. Ingle and Clayborne made common cause, and were so powerful that Calvert was driven from the colony, and Edward Hill, a Virginian, was put in his place. He was so obedient to Ingle and Clayborne, and so oppressive to the colonists, that most of those, even of his own faith, fell away from him.

Calvert meanwhile was not idle. Driven into Virginia, he kept in touch with his adherents across the line, and spent the winter in gathering a small force, with which he crossed the border and recaptured St. Mary's. Calvert resumed the Governorship in August, 1646. Clayborne fled from Kent Island, while Ingle was now safe in England. Peace once more came to the sorely plagued province, and Leonard Calvert, dying in June, 1647, appointed Thomas Green his successor. Green, who was a Roman Catholic, was displaced by Lord Baltimore, who commissioned William Stone his successor. He was a Virginian, a Protestant, and a strong supporter of Parliament. He proved to be a wise ruler, and through his influence many Virginia Puritans settled in Maryland.

Calvert Resumes Governorship

The assembly, which met in 1649, was composed of Puritans, Churchmen, and Roman Catholics. It passed the Toleration Act, which allowed free exercise of the religious opinions to every one who believed in Jesus Christ and the Trinity. Since Unitarians and Jews were excluded, this Toleration Act is not entitled to all the credit that has often been given to it.

Passage of the Toleration Act, 1649

Although Lord Baltimore professed to be an adherent of republicanism, he had been too devoted a friend of the beheaded King for Parliament entirely to trust him. That body appointed a commission, of which Clayborne was a member, to govern Maryland. The members arrived in 1652, took Governor Stone's commission from him, but reinstated him some months later, he being permitted to reserve to himself his oath to Lord Baltimore as proprietor of the province, till "the pleasure of the State of England be further known." At the same time, Kent and Palmer's Islands were restored to Clayborne, who in this gained a decisive victory over his old enemy.

Lord Baltimore, in August, 1652, petitioned Parliament for redress. He reminded that body that while Virginia had clung to King Charles, Maryland, like New England, had not declared against the Parliament. In 1653, upon the dissolution of the "Long Parlia-

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ment," Cromwell restored all of Baltimore's rights as proprietor. Governor Stone was imprudent enough to adopt rigorous measures against the late disturbers of the peace, Clayborne being among those whom he refused to pardon. The incensed commissioners immediately removed Stone and the Catholic officers, and vested the government in a board of ten commissioners.

Repeal of the Toleration Act, 1654

The assembly, which convened in 1654, contained a majority of Protestants, whose anger against their co-religionists was so kindled that they passed an act depriving the Roman Catholics and members of the Church of England of the right to vote. Lord Baltimore, who was then in London, upon learning what had been done, sought and obtained an audience with Cromwell. The interview was courteous on both sides, and that remarkable man, known as the Protector, under the Commonwealth, commanded the commissioners to let religious matters alone, and concern themselves only with those pertaining to civil government. Lord Baltimore was so encouraged that he sent orders to Stone to raise and enroll a force to assert his authority.

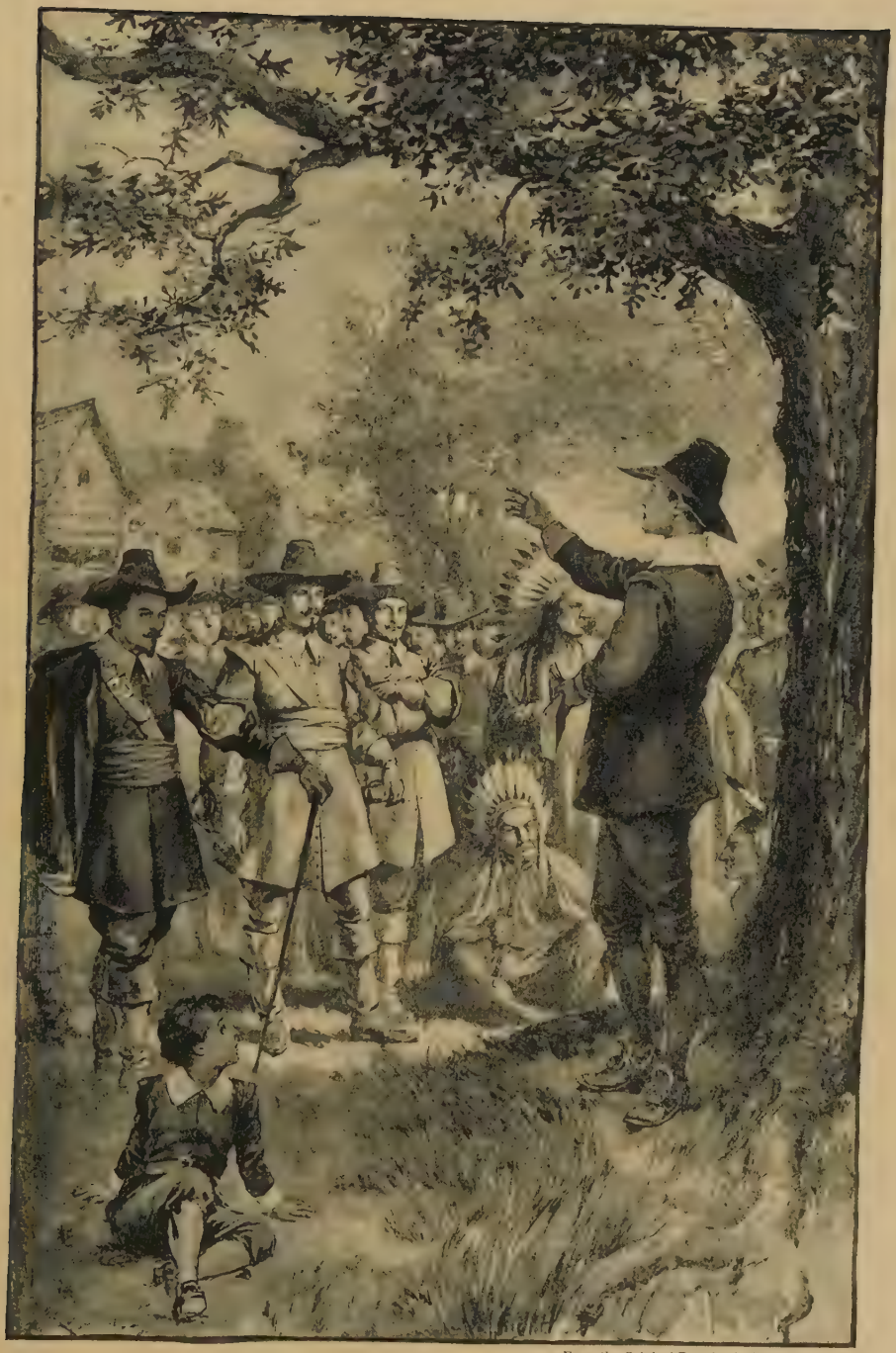
Local Disturbances

The deposed Governor was only too glad to do so. He gathered a large number of followers, mostly Roman Catholics, seized the colonial records, and kindled anew the flames of civil war. Several conflicts took place, and in an engagement, in April, 1655, near the site of Annapolis, Stone met with a severe repulse, and was made prisoner. Four of his associates were hanged, but the Governor's life was spared.

Civil war continued to rage, and Cromwell was continually pestered with the petitions of the rival claimants. At last, in November, 1657, a settlement was reached by the representatives in England, and was confirmed, in March following, by the contestants in Maryland. This agreement guaranteed amnesty for all past offenses; full liberty of conscience; the submission of the Puritans to the authority of Lord Baltimore as proprietor. Land warrants were to be granted, and the actions of previous assemblies were to be held legal, without regard to past political disturbances.

Restoration of Baltimore's Rights, 1660

When Cromwell died, the Marylanders dissolved the proprietary part of the general assembly, and, in the spring of 1660, elected their Governor, and assumed the entire legislative control of the State. A few months later, Charles II. ascended the English throne, and restored to Lord Baltimore his full proprietary rights. He proclaimed pardon for all political offenses



From the Original Drawing by Warren R. Davis

GEORGE FOX'S NOTABLE MARYLAND AUDIENCE

PERIOD II — COLONIZATION AND SETTLEMENT 1602 TO 1758 —

and the peace and prosperity which followed remained undisturbed for thirty years.

George Fox in Maryland

An interesting occurrence during this tranquil period was the arrival of George Fox, the founder of the sect of Friends or Quakers. In the assemblage which gathered on the shores of the Chesapeake to listen to his preaching were members of the legislature, the leading men of the province, Indian sachems and their families, with their great chief at their head.

Lord Baltimore, after seeing his colony emerge from its early stormy years, and increase in number till it reached a population of ten thousand, died in 1675, and was succeeded by his son, Charles. The right of popular suffrage was established by the general assembly of 1678, while he was absent in England. Returning three years later, he, however, set aside the act, and permitted no one to vote who did not own fifty acres of land, or property to the value of forty pounds. This caused so much dissatisfaction that the mutterings of rebellion were again heard, and the King issued an order that all the offices in Maryland should be filled exclusively by Protestants.

A Crisis in Affairs, 1684

Lord Baltimore visited England in 1684, where he found his rights in peril. He had hardly set about protecting them, when James II. was driven from the throne, and William and Mary ascended it. Baltimore bowed to the change, and sent orders to his deputies to proclaim the new monarchs. A delay in sending out these orders caused distrust in the province. A marplot, named Coode, alarmed the people by the cry that the Roman Catholics had joined the Indians in a plot to massacre all the Protestants. The latter flew to arms, and, under the leadership of Coode, took possession of St. Mary's, and assumed the government in May, 1689. With an account of their action, they sent a series of false accusations to the King regarding Lord Baltimore, and begged him to make

Rule of Coode, 1689-1692

the province a royal one under the protection of the crown. The request was granted, and Coode was made Governor. His rule was so bad that he was displaced in 1692, and Sir Lionel Copley was appointed his successor. Under his rule, religious toleration was abolished, and the Church of England became the State church, supported by the taxation of the people. Other oppressive laws were passed, and the seat of government was moved, in 1694, to the town of Anne Arundel, the name of which was changed in the following year to Annapolis, which remained the capital.

History of Maryland to the Revolution

The proprietary rights of Lord Baltimore were never restored to him. His son, Benedict Leonard Calvert, who was educated a Protestant, received them back in 1715. Years of prosperity followed, under Charles Calvert, fifth Lord Baltimore, during which the population increased to nearly one hundred and fifty thousand. The proprietary rights of the province remained in the family of Lord Baltimore until the Revolution. The last Royal Governor was John Hart, who ruled as Deputy for several years, and Frederick Calvert succeeded his father upon his death in 1751.*

*To the student of Maryland history, no little interest must center in the Calvert family (the Lords Baltimore), which for nearly one hundred and fifty years (1632-1771) exercised Palatine powers over the colony, and gave it, on the whole, the blessings of a wise and beneficent rule. Though founded by a Roman Catholic, and its affairs administered through an exceedingly turbulent era in English history, by successive members of the original grantee's family, Maryland and its colonizers enjoyed a larger measure of peace and prosperity than fell to the lot of settlers in other regions on the coast. The annals of the colony, it is true, were checkered, first, as we have seen, by the unwillingness of William Clayborne, the Puritan trader of Virginia, to acknowledge Baltimore's rights in the territory assigned by James the First's grant; and, secondly, by the insurrection of John Coode, whose clerical zeal for the defense of Protestantism had been fired by the dethronement of James II. and the movements connected with the English Revolution of 1688. But these disturbances were due more to the lawlessness and fanaticism of the time than to any despotic acts or defects in the administration, since the proprietary governors, in founding the colony, had laid down rules for its government conceived in the most liberal, tolerant, and enlightened spirit.

The Lords Baltimore were seven in number, dating from the creation of the title, in 1625, to its extinction, in 1771, by the death of Frederick Calvert, the seventh Baron, who left no legal heir. The first Baron Baltimore, George Calvert (1580-1632), was a statesman and privy councillor in James the First's reign, and one of the King's secretaries of state. In 1624, when the kingly champion of Episcopal authority in England was making truculent concessions to Roman Catholics, to advance the prospective marriage interests in Spain of his son, Prince Charles, which all came to naught, Sir George Calvert declared himself a convert to the Papacy, and resigned his offices in the state. In the following year, the King made him Baron Baltimore; and from that monarch's successor he obtained a grant of land in the New World, supplemental to that which had already been deeded him in Newfoundland, but which he had abandoned, in consequence of the rigor of the climate. As the patent was about to issue, Lord Baltimore died (in 1632), but the grant was made to his son, Cecil, who, in the following year, sent out his brother Leonard, to found and govern the Maryland colony. We have seen what vicissitudes overtook the young settlement, but in spite of these it grew apace and prospered, enjoying, as we have shown, exceptional advantages under the long rule of its lords-proprietor. With the death (in 1771) of Frederick Calvert, seventh Lord Baltimore, the title became extinct; and shortly after this the colony passed from the hands of the historic family into those of the crown. The "Monumental City," situate at the head of tidewater on the Patapsco River, which perpetuates the family name, was founded in 1729.

From the Original Drawing by G. W. Bardwell

JOHN ARCHDALE, A GOOD AND WISE RULER

CHAPTER XIX

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF THE CAROLINAS

[*Authorities*: The reader will have learned something of the early history of the Carolinas from the account given in a previous chapter of Jean Ribaut's attempt at settlement at Port Royal, in the time of Charles X., of France. Nearly a hundred years, however, were to pass before any portion of the region was opened to practical settlement. In 1663, Charles II., of England, made a grant of the territory, and two years later enlarged the grant, to eight lords-proprietor, under whom and their successors the region was settled, until it passed, in 1729-31, into the hands of the Crown as two distinct royal provinces, named North and South Carolina. The chief incidents in the annals of the territory will be found in the present chapter. These include the facts respecting the philosopher John Locke's impracticable constitution; the turbulent scenes connected with the misrule of successive Governors; the expedition of South Carolina against St. Augustine, Florida, and the Spanish reprisals directed against Charleston; the troubles with the Tuscarora and other Indian tribes of the region; and the events preceding the separation of the two colonies. For further and more detailed accounts of the Carolinas, see Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," Lodge's "English Colonies in America," Saunders's "Colonial Records," Moore's "History of North Carolina," and Simms's "History of South Carolina."]

Settlement on the Chowan River

IN the earlier portion of this work, the unsuccessful attempts to settle the Carolinas, prior to the planting of an English colony at Jamestown, have been touched upon. The fate of the "Lost Colony of Roanoke" will always remain one of the most pathetic incidents of our early history.

Several efforts were made by adventurers to find homes and wealth south of Virginia during the first quarter of the seventeenth century, and in 1630 a charter was obtained by Sir Robert Heath, the Attorney-General of Charles I., which granted a stretch of territory, six degrees in width, and lying south of Virginia, but the charter was recalled because its conditions were not fulfilled by Heath.

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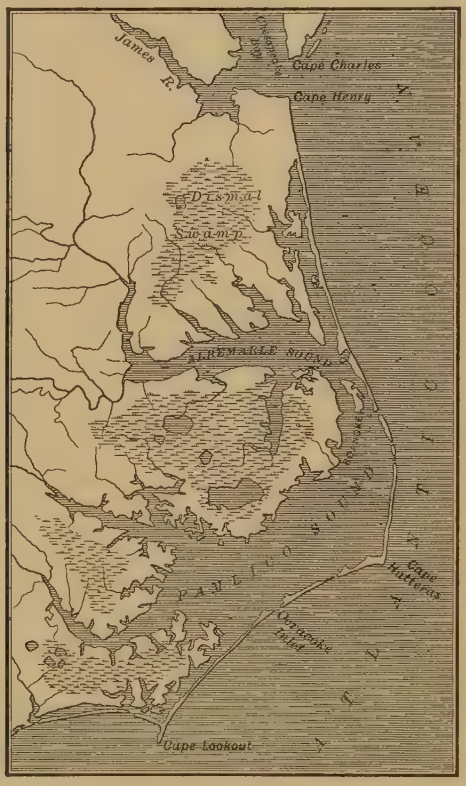
A settlement was made on the Chowan River, in 1653, by a number of Presbyterians from Jamestown. The location was chosen near the later site of Edenton, and there they were followed by others who sought to escape the rude climate and harsh rule of New England. Thus the settlements attained considerable importance.



REGION OF NORTH CAROLINA SETTLEMENTS

Charles II.'s Grant, 1663

In March, 1663, Charles II. granted to the Earl of Clarendon, to the Duke of Albermarle, Lord Craven, Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, Lord John Berkeley (brother of the then Governor of Virginia), Sir George Carteret, and a number of other favorites, a domain extending from about the thirtieth to the thirty-sixth parallel of north latitude, with, as its western boundary, the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. This body of water generally served to define the western limits of all the royal grants, for it was a long time before the people in the Old World learned that three thousand miles of land separated the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In 1665, the charter was amended so as to include a half-degree more of territory to the north, and one degree additional to the south.

Founding of the Albemarle County Colony, 1663

At the time this grant was made, the settlements on the Chowan had become so important that Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, was authorized to extend his jurisdiction over them. Instead of doing this, he organized them into a separate government, designated as the Albemarle County Colony, and appointed William Drummond, a Presbyterian of Virginia, as Governor. The administration was organized on a just and liberal basis. Joined with Drummond in the government of

the colony were six associates, who, with an assembly chosen by the people, administered the laws, subject to the approval of the proprietors.

Several years before these events, a company of New Englanders settled at the mouth of Cape Fear River; but, becoming discouraged, they soon abandoned the colony. In 1663, a number of colonizers from Barbadoes bought a tract of land, in the same neighborhood, thirty-two miles square, and began to found a settlement. Sir John Yeamans with several hundred immigrants landed at Cape Fear River in May, 1664, and made satisfactory terms with the people from Barbadoes. The domain, then governed by Yeamans, was named the Clarendon County Colony, and extended from Cape Fear to the St. John's River, in Florida. The soil was poor, but valuable pine lumber was on every hand, and the settlers turned their energies to the manufacture of boards, shingles, and staves, and the extracting and making of turpentine, for which they found a ready sale in the West Indies. The Albemarle County Colony and that of Clarendon County thrived, and became the foundation of the commonwealth of North Carolina.

The Colonies of Albemarle and Clarendon Counties

Lord Ashley, afterwards the Earl of Shaftesbury, showed deep interest in these enterprises, and had more to do with the settlement and development of the Carolinas than all the rest of his associates. In 1670, the proprietors sent three ships with immigrants to settle in the more southern portions of the province. They were in charge of William Sayle and Joseph West, and landed at Beaufort Island, where Sayle died in the following year, and Sir John Yeamans succeeded him as Governor. The settlement was abandoned soon after, and the immigrants located a few miles above where Charleston now stands, on a spot known as Old Town. This was changed in 1680 to the present site of Charleston. Its organization was under the title of the Carteret County Colony, and representative government was established in 1672. Yeaman's management was so poor that he was removed in 1674, and Joseph West appointed as his successor. His wise and energetic rule added greatly to the prosperity of the colony.

The Grand Model 1669

An absurd ambition of the Carolina proprietors was to establish a great empire in the province. Sir Ashley Cooper, and the famous philosopher, John Locke, undertook to frame a constitution and perfect a scheme suitable to the grand ideas of themselves and their associates. They completed their work in 1669. The "Grand

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Model," as it was called, cannot be considered at this era without a smile. First, it divided the immense territory into counties, each containing four hundred and eighty thousand acres. The lands were partitioned into five equal parts, one of which belonged to the proprietors, one to each of two orders of nobility—landgraves and earls, and caciques or barons—one of the former and two of the latter being assigned to each county; while the remaining three-fifths were the property of "the people." When the absurd scheme, designed to establish titles and aristocratic distinctions in America, was submitted to the citizens of the Carolinas, they rejected it so overwhelmingly that it was never afterwards referred to except with ridicule.

The Albemarle Colony

Matters went amiss with the Albermarle Colony. Governor Stephens died in 1674, and Carteret, who was chosen to fill his place until the arrival of instructions from the proprietors, showed so little interest in affairs that he soon left for England. To end the confusion, and allay the belief that the proprietors intended to turn the colony over to Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, the speaker of the assembly, Thomas Eastchurch, was sent in 1676 to explain matters to the proprietors, and secure the appointment of a competent Governor. Eastchurch thought his mission well accomplished when he obtained the necessary instructions, and his own commission as Governor.

Thomas Miller, who was believed to be plotting against the colony, and was, therefore, regarded with extreme disfavor, had visited England and obtained an appointment as Lord Shaftesbury's Deputy in Carolina. Eastchurch and Miller sailed for America in the same ship, but while halting at the West Indies Eastchurch was so filled with admiration for a young lady whom he met, that he stayed behind to woo her, while Miller went forward as his Deputy. He arrived at Albemarle in July, 1677, and became the acting Governor. Miller found some of the people disposed to be law-abiding, but

Turbulent Times

many were reckless adventurers and vagrants. The main industry of the community was the trade with New England, and nearly all thus engaged used every effort to escape the payment of the English customs-dues. In his vigorous efforts to abolish smuggling Miller caused an uprising, which resulted in the imprisonment of himself and his deputies, and the calling of a new assembly, which took the government into its own hands.

Thus matters stood, when Governor Eastchurch and his bride arrived from the West Indies. Being powerless, he appealed to Gov-

ernor Berkeley, of Virginia, for aid in recovering his rights; but before any steps to that end were taken, Eastchurch died. An appeal was then made to the proprietors, who appointed Seth Sothell Governor. Sothell sailed for the Carolinas, but on his way was captured by the Turks and taken to Algiers. Learning of his misfortunes, John Harvey was assigned the task of ruling the colony until Sothell should put in an appearance. Harvey made so poor a ruler that John Jenkins took his place in the summer of 1680. His rule

GOVERNOR THOMAS MILLER IN CAROLINA PRISON

lasted only until the following February, when Henry Wilkinson became Governor. In 1683, Sothell, having escaped from the Turks, arrived and took charge of affairs, which had not improved in the least. Meanwhile, the southern colony enjoyed prosperity and tranquillity for several years, under the sagacious Joseph West. Among the immigrants who continued to arrive were many of the persecuted Huguenots, whose industry, refined tastes, and moral life gave them an exalted place among the early settlers, hardly if at all equaled by any other pioneers.

A Period of Misrule, 1677-1695

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Sothell, the Governor of the northern colony, proved to be dishonest, small-minded, and tyrannical. He became so oppressive that the people speedily rose in rebellion, banished him for a year, and declared him forever disqualified for the office of Governor. Sothell took up his residence in the southern colony, where we shall soon hear of him again.

In Philip Ludwell, Sothell's successor, the northern colony secured an honest man, but he was wanting in energy, and was soon removed. Thomas Smith was the next experiment in the office of ruler, but he notified the proprietors that it was folly to undertake to rule the province by a deputy; they must, he said, send one of their own number as Governor. The advice was taken, and John Archdale, a Quaker, who had bought the interest of one of the proprietors, came over as Governor in 1695.

Archdale's Beneficent Rule, 1695-1696

It is a pleasure to think of this good man and wise ruler. Being a devout member of the Society of Friends, it followed that he was honest. Besides that, he was wise, and possessed admirable tact. His utterances on his arrival were in the best of taste, and he quickly won the confidence of all. He knew when to be indulgent and when to be inflexible. Everybody respected him. The Indians soon learned that a man was at the head of affairs who spoke with "a single tongue," and they, too, yielded him their confidence. At the close of 1696, he returned to England, leaving as his successor Joseph Blake, a brother of the famous Admiral Blake and nephew of Archdale, who was also a good ruler.

Seth Sothell, when he turned his back upon the northern province which had banished him, reached the southern colony just at the time when the dissatisfied ones were looking around for a leader. Sothell seemed to be the man they wanted, and he was accepted. He seized the government in 1690, called together an assembly composed of his friends, robbed right and left, and speedily made himself detested. The proprietors were finally compelled to remove him, and, returning to Albemarle, he died in 1694.

Sothell in the Southern Colony

Although the northern and southern colonies were united for a number of years longer, they acted independently of each other, and both made steady advances in population, in wealth, and in general prosperity. Those in North Carolina (as we may as well call the northern colony) began to give their attention to the resources of the vast wilderness stretching away for unknown miles to the west-

ward. This illimitable forest abounded with deer, buffaloes, turkeys, beavers, and other game, which the settlers hunted and trapped.

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An attempt was made, in 1704, to establish the ecclesiastical dominion of the Church of England in North Carolina. The first church was erected in 1705, but no court-house was built until 1722, while the first printing-press was not set up until 1754. The church named was erected at the public expense, but the scheme of an established church was vehemently opposed by the people, the Friends being the strongest in opposition. The disturbances were so violent for a while that two Governors and two Assemblies tried to exercise their functions at the same time; but the quarrel soon subsided, and the people accepted the scheme proposed, but sturdily refused to become churchmen.

Ecclesiastical Disturbances in North Carolina

We have referred to the excellent character of the Huguenots who helped in the settlement and development of the Carolinas. They located on the banks of the Trent, a tributary of the Neuse, in 1707, and, a couple of years later, Swiss emigrants settled New Berne, at the head of the Neuse. A hundred German families about the same time began to found settlements on the headwaters of the Neuse and the banks of the Roanoke.

Massacre of the Settlers, 1711

One night, in October, 1711, the Tuscaroras and other Indians attacked the German settlers along the Roanoke and Pamlico Sound. More than one hundred men, women, and children were massacred, and scores of homes laid in ashes. North Carolina was very naturally thrown into consternation at this outbreak. Some of the inhabitants ran towards the sea-coast, and others fled from the province. Those that remained called upon South Carolina for help. Colonel Barnwell hastily gathered a force of men, including a considerable number of friendly Indians, and hurried to the aid of his distressed neighbors. The Tuscaroras were driven back to their fortified towns, where they gladly pledged themselves to remain peaceful. The South Carolinians ignored this pledge on their way home, and committed many atrocities. The Tuscaroras again flew to arms, and terror once more reigned. The North Carolinians would have been destroyed had not their brethren a second time gone to their help. The hostiles were badly defeated, and several hundred of the Tuscaroras were made prisoners. The remainder fled northward, into the present State of New York, where they joined the five tribes composing the

Defeat of the Tuscaroras

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Iroquois confederacy. Because of this reinforcement the league has since been generally referred to as the "Six Nations," though known also by the name of the "Five Nations."

South Carolina suffered from another cause of disturbance. When her Governor, in 1702, learned of Queen Anne's proclamation of war against France, and that Spain was also embroiled, he proposed to the assembly that an expedition should be sent against St. Augustine. The assembly gave its assistance, and a force numbering six hundred colonists and as many Indians was organized, and in two divisions, one by land and the other by water, the expedition advanced against the old Spanish town. Upon the approach of the land force, the Spaniards retired within the fort, where they were safe, since the Englishmen had no artillery.

Expedition of South Carolina against St. Augustine, 1702

QUEEN ANNE

When the vessels arrived soon afterward, they blockaded the harbor of St. Augustine. The land forces plundered the town, and a force was sent to Jamaica for cannon, but, before it returned, two Spanish war-vessels appeared, and the blockaders fled. The campaign having failed, Governor Moore, a year later, tried his hand at a campaign against the Indians, who were known to be allies of the Spaniards. They occupied a region, a portion of which they had cultivated, between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers, in Georgia. He desolated their villages, killed a large number, and took many captives. A few years afterwards, the red men proved that they had not forgotten this blow received at the hands of the English.

Spanish Expedition against Charleston, 1706

In retaliation for the attack upon St. Augustine, an expedition, consisting of five vessels-of-war, under the command of a French Admiral, and a strong body of troops, left Havana to attack Charleston. The intention was to conquer the province, and annex it to the Spanish territory in Florida. This formidable squadron crossed the bar in May, 1706, landed a considerable number of troops, and the commander sent a demand to Governor Moore to surrender, with the threat that he would take the town by storm in case of refusal. The Governor had made every preparation possible, and returned a defiant reply. To give emphasis to the refusal, the invaders on

shore were attacked, many were killed, and a large number taken prisoners, while the remainder were driven in confusion to their ships. The French Admiral was astounded, and, when he saw the few vessels composing the navy preparing to attack his squadron, he weighed anchor and put to sea. No more danger was to be feared from that quarter.

League of Hostile Tribes and Massacre of the Settlers, 1715

But the greatest tempest of all was gathering its thunderbolts, to be launched against the Carolinas. Urged by the French in the Mississippi valley and the Spaniards in Florida, a league composed of the Indian tribes between Cape Fear and St. Mary's rivers, including fully six thousand warriors, was formed for the destruction

FRIENDLY INDIAN REPORTING INDIAN UPRISING, CAROLINA

of the English. In this league were included Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Congarees, and Yemmasees. Another thousand in the Neuse region attacked the settlements there, in revenge for the blow struck them several years before.

Revenge of the Yemmasees

On the morning of April 13, 1715, the Yemmasees assailed the settlers along the seaboard, and began a fearful massacre. One of the fleetest of the Indians, dodging the infuriated savages, swam several streams and ran a dozen miles with the news to Port Royal. There the people hurried on board a ship, and carried the tidings to Charleston, whither streams of panic-stricken planters and their families rushed in frenzied haste. Governor Craven saw that the capital

Defeat of the Indians, 1715

was in the greatest danger. He declared martial law, caused all the weapons and ammunition in the town to be seized, armed the able-bodied men, friendly Indians, and trustworthy blacks, and with this mixed force, of more than a thousand men, marched out to meet the savages, who were eagerly advancing to attack him. The Indians were defeated, and pursued until they took refuge under the Spanish guns at St. Augustine. The hostiles from the north were driven back, and the most powerful tribes of the league, which had not yet taken the warpath, were so impressed by the prowess of the white men that they decided to leave them alone. Then followed a lasting peace.

KING GEORGE I.

The proprietary system of government had long been unpopular in South Carolina. It was expensive, and many of the Governors were wholly unfitted for their duties. Something like a revolt took place, when the King (George I.*) inclined a favorable ear to the petition of his subjects, and, in 1720, South Carolina was made a royal province, under Francis Nicholson as Governor. Then North Carolina became restive, and the proprietors, making provision for the inevitable, sold the province to the King in 1728, and that, too, became a royal province. The two Carolinas were then separated, George Barrington becoming Governor of North Carolina, and Robert Johnson of South Carolina. There were many disputes between the people and their royal Governors, and much friction and dissatisfaction existed down to the breaking out of the French and Indian war.

The Two Carolinas Made Royal Provinces, 1729

*The first of the Hanoverian Kings of England, under a successor of whom the American colonies were to achieve independence. The coming of the Elector of Hanover to the English throne had little immediate influence on the colonies, for George I. (1714-1727) was little versed in English affairs, and did not even speak English; while France was, for the time, under the youthful Louis XV. and the Regency. George I. owed his accession to the throne to the now-established Protestantism of the nation, which, since William and Mary had died childless, and Anne had no survivors, transferred the succession from the collateral Stuart heirs, who were Catholics, to the son of the Electress Sophia of Hanover, the last surviving child of Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I. of England.

CHAPTER XX

THE COLONIAL HISTORY OF PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE

[*Authorities*: Though among the last of the English colonies to be permanently and happily settled, Pennsylvania and Delaware had an earlier history before Penn's day, under Swedish, Dutch, and English rule. Both colonies owe much to the pacific and humane character of their illustrious founder, and not the least of their debt to Penn and the Society of Friends was their freedom from Indian molestation and border embroilments. This absence from strife, in the case, especially, of the larger and more important of the two colonies, was most favorable to its speedy and substantial development, and, when the time came, to its assuming that historic and commanding importance which Pennsylvania won in the founding of the nation. The supplementary sources of information respecting Pennsylvania are both numerous and important. The various memoirs of Penn—the best of which are Janney's, and Stoughton's—together with the annals of the Quakers, and the local histories of Philadelphia, should all be consulted. See, especially, Egle's "History of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania;" also, Scharf's "Delaware."]

Wm Penns House 1682

IN the preceding chapters the reader will have found mention made of the Friends, or Quakers. These good people appeared in England in the early part of the seventeenth century, and, as we have learned, suffered persecution in Massachusetts and in some other of the colonies.

Among the many converts to the faith of George Fox, the founder of this sect, was young William Penn, only son of the famous Admiral Penn. He was converted while at college, and suffered persecution, not only from the authorities, but from his father, who had no patience with his principles, and beat and disowned him. His mother acted as mediator, and, in the end, the integrity and consistent life of the clever young man won back the affection of the paternal parent, and the two became reconciled.

When Admiral Penn died, he left his son a large fortune. Among the assets was a debt of eighty thousand dollars, owed by the government to this father for his services. The son proposed that this should be paid in the form of a grant of land in America, and the offer was gladly accepted. Penn had already become interested in the settlement of this country. New Jersey had come into the possession of some Friends, for whom he acted as arbitrator, and the persecution which his brethren suffered caused him to long for some place where they could live in tranquillity. Others who had sought refuge for conscience's sake in America had found there an asylum, and he looked upon the opportunity thus offered as a timely and providential one.

The Pennsylvania Charter, 1681

A charter, granting to William Penn the present State of Pennsylvania, was issued, March 14, 1681. Penn and his heirs were to retain proprietorship in this immense tract forever, upon the nominal annual payment of two beaver skins. The grant having been made, Penn was ready with the name "New Wales" for it, but the Secretary of State was a Welshman, and did not like the name. Then Penn offered "Sylvania," but King Charles insisted that it should be "Pennsylvania," in remembrance of his faithful Admiral. Penn was shocked, as this would look like conceit on his part. He offered the Secretary who drew up the charter a liberal present of money if he would leave off the "Penn" from the name; but the clerk took good care that it remained. The grant being secure in his hands, Penn took steps to carry out the views he had held for years. He was a good man, and wise beyond his generation. He let it be known that he meant to form a just government, whose foundation principle was absolute freedom of conscience. As a consequence, the colonization of Pennsylvania attracted the widest desirable attention.

First Emigration to Pennsylvania, 1681

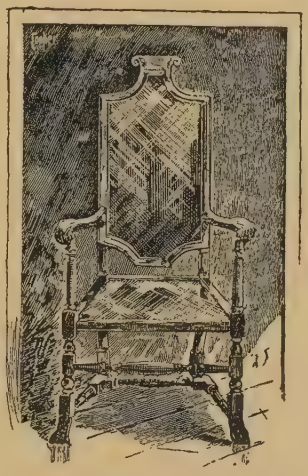
In May, 1681, Penn sent his cousin, William Markham, to Pennsylvania as his representative and Deputy-Governor. He took a large number of emigrants with him, chiefly of those which were in the employ of the "Company of Free Traders," which had bought lands of the proprietor. Land was offered at forty shillings per hundred acres, and, so great was the confidence in Penn, that thousands of people turned their attention to Pennsylvania, and made preparations for removing thither.

We cannot too highly commend the course of William Penn in

founding the great commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Had his example and spirit been followed elsewhere, multitudes of lives, and untold suffering, disaster, misery, and wretchedness would have given place to peace, prosperity, and happiness.

The Wisdom and Justice of Penn

In framing his laws for the colony, the humane founder proceeded on the belief that there is in every human being a disposition to do right, and that if this disposition is nurtured, the person *will* do right. He was unwilling to make any crime punishable with death; but Chief Justice North insisted that such should be the penalty for murder and treason. No man, however, was hanged in Pennsylvania during the lifetime of Penn.



PENN'S CHAIR

One of the beneficent laws of the colony was that arbitration ought to settle all disputes, even between nations. Subsequent history has shown the approach of the time when all the peoples of the world will adopt this Christian method of ending their quarrels. There have been many wars, in which hundreds of thousands of innocent lives have been sacrificed, for which there was often not the least justification. The ambition of one man, a wrangle between two rogues who happened to be in authority, the possession of some worthless bit of land, a mutual jealousy, have been sufficient to incite men to fly at one another's throats, and plunge peaceful communities into the horrors of a long and bloody strife. History is full of such instances. How often have we seen their dreadful effect in the early colonial wars, when French and English lived side by side as friendly neighbors; then word would come that their respective countries thousands of miles away, had begun fighting. Straightway, these neighbors would become mortal enemies, and set to work to kill each other. All this might have been saved by arbitration, which, it is a pleasure to observe, has steadily grown in favor in both the New and the Old World.

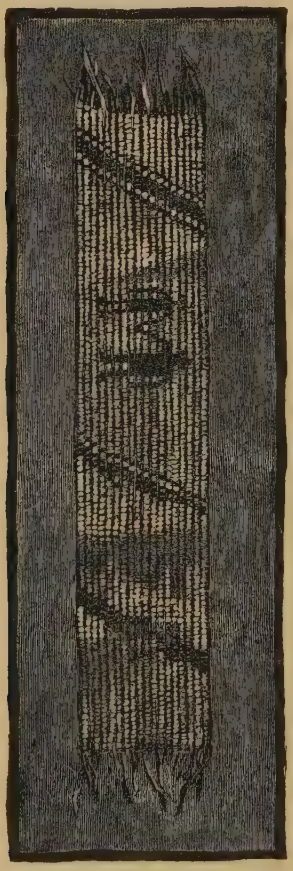
Arbitration rather than the Sword

Among the other good measures formulated by Penn was that of devoting prisons to the reformation, instead of to the punishment, of criminals, another great civilizing truth which happily has gained

much ground and practical support. He declared oaths useless, since a person who will lie would do so under any circumstances. Drunkenness, cock-fighting, and card-playing were pronounced cruel and wrong; falsehood was punishable as a crime; and, in all litigation in which an Indian was interested, it was insisted on that half of the jury should be composed of Indians.

Now, if the reader will glance at the map of our country, he will observe that Pennsylvania is an inland State, that is, that no part of it touches the ocean. This was regarded a great drawback to its prosperity so long as it should be shut out from the seaboard. The possession of Delaware was the one thing needed to overcome this obstacle; but Lord Baltimore claimed that Delaware was in his grant, though the Duke of York would not admit the claim. To end the dispute, however, the latter offered to buy the domain of the Baron, who refused to sell. Penn condemned the course of Baltimore, whereupon the Duke gave to Penn a quit-claim deed for the territory now composing the State of Delaware. It was then divided, as in later times, into the counties of New Castle, Kent, and Sussex, and was referred to as the "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware."

The Province of Delaware Granted to Penn, 1682



WAMPUM TREATY BELT

In 1681, three additional vessels with English immigrants were sent to Pennsylvania. At Chester one of them was caught in the ice-floes, and frozen in the Delaware. The immigrants dug caves in the bank, in which they lived until milder weather came. Then all settled farther up the river, near its banks, and began building and planting.

Immigrants Live in Caves

Penn was so interested in his new province that he soon paid it a visit. He sailed in the ship *Welcome*, September 1, 1682, taking with him about a hundred emigrants, most of whom were Friends from the neighborhood of his home.

Smallpox unfortunately broke out among them, and thirty died during the passage. The voyage was long and tiresome, and it was not until the latter part of October that the Delaware was sighted. Entering the river, a landing was effected at New Castle, where several thousand settlers, composed of Swedes, Dutch, English, Germans, and Huguenots, had made their homes.

The reputation of Penn had preceded him, and he received a cordial welcome from these people. Calling them together on the following day, in the quaint old Dutch court-house, he produced the royal patent, and received from the Duke of York's agent a formal surrender and transfer of the territory. Penn addressed the people in words so kind and considerate that he won their instant regard. He "naturalized" the inhabitants, renewed the commissions of the magistrates, and promised to remember their request to make the province a part of Pennsylvania.

EMIGRANT SHIP FROZEN IN ON THE DELAWARE

Penn's Visit to Pennsylvania, 1682

Parting with his friends, Penn now sailed up the Delaware to the Swedish town of Upland (Chester). At this point he received an-

From the Original Drawing by De Cost Smith

WILLIAM PENN AT UPLAND (CHESTER) PA.

other cordial welcome, and met his cousin, William Markham, whom he had sent over as his representative the year before. The first general assembly was held in the Friends' meeting-house in this settlement, and several weeks were spent in making allotments of the land. Penn set aside two estates, of ten thousand acres each, for his staunch friend, the Duke of York; a thousand acres, free of all cost and charge, for his loved instructor, George Fox; while eight thousand acres were reserved for himself, each of his three infant children to have a share. The remaining land was sold at fourpence an acre, subject to a yearly quit-rent of one shilling for each hundred acres. Penn also paid a visit to the adjoining provinces of New Jersey and Maryland, and in all cases he was treated with courtesy. He and Lord Baltimore discussed the question of the boundary between the two provinces, and sought to settle the knotty point whether Delaware was a part of Maryland or of Pennsylvania. Finding that they could not agree, they determined to let the London authorities decide the matter for them.

The First General Assembly at Upland (Chester)

We are all familiar with the picture of the great painter, Benjamin West, which represents Penn making a treaty with the Indians, under an immense spreading elm, at Shackamaxon, on the banks of the Delaware. This historic spot is now a portion of the Kensington district of Philadelphia. The interesting event took place in October, 1682, when the trees had begun to shed their foliage. The spot had long been famous as a meeting-place for Indian councils, and there, on the occasion named, gathered the chiefs, sachems, and leading warriors of the Lenni-Lenape, or Delaware, Indians, for the purpose of making a treaty with the founder of Pennsylvania. Unluckily, there is no authentic account of this meeting in the open air under the old spreading elm, but that it took place there is little doubt. Penn was not yet forty years of age, and he and his companions were dressed in the simple garb of the Quaker sect. The Indian sachems brought their wives and children, but as none of them believed in "woman's rights," the females took no part in the conference, and kept silently in the background.

Penn's Treaty with the Indians, 1682

"We meet," said Penn, "on the broad pathway of good faith and good-will. No advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. I will not compare the friendship between you and

me to a chain, for that might be rusted by the rain, or a falling tree might break it. But let us feel that we are the same as if one man's body were to live in two separate parts, for we are all one in mankind; we are all of one flesh and blood."

Penn and Chief Taminent

The substance of this speech was repeated to the Indians by an interpreter, and Taminent, the chief sachem, replied in a similar vein, expressing his delight at the words of his noble brother, to whom he handed a belt of wampum as a pledge of fidelity. "We will live in love," said Taminent, "with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and moon shall endure." And this treaty, of which it has been said, it was the only one not sworn to, was never broken by either party.

It is not quite correct to say that the meeting under the great elm was called for the purpose of buying the land from the Indians, for it was Penn's purpose from the first to make such purchase. He had instructed Markham to explain this to the red men, and when the founder met them, it was to complete the bargain of the preceding year. Penn not only gave the price agreed upon, but delighted the hearts of warriors, women, and children with numerous additional presents. If we contrast this conquest of the savages by love with that of Menendez and other Spanish explorers, whose weapons were the sword, fire, and the hand of outrage and pillage, we shall see how beneficent was Penn's "better way." The contrast gains immensely also when compared with the action of many of our own ancestors, and with the course of our government through succeeding generations. True, Penn paid twice for the soil of Pennsylvania, but leaving out of view the question of right, no more profitable bargain was ever made, for not only were treasures of money saved, but thousands of precious human lives.

Philadelphia Founded, 1682

After his visit to Lord Baltimore, Penn ascended the Delaware in an open boat to Wicaco, near which stood an old block-house built by the Swedes, and afterwards changed into a church. There he purchased lands from the colonists, extending from the banks of the Delaware to the Schuylkill. On this ground he laid out the city of Philadelphia, a civic appellation signifying "brotherly love." Penn landed at Dock Street, opposite an unfinished house, known for many years afterward as the Blue Anchor Tavern. The plan of the city embraced twelve square miles, and was laid out by Penn and Thomas Holme, his surveyor. The street boundaries were marked

on the chestnut, walnut, spruce, pine, locust, and other forest trees, which grew in great numbers, and most of those streets still bear these original names.

The city was prosperous from its first founding. A hundred houses were erected during the first year, and several hundred more in the second year. The hospitable "Blue Anchor," whose landlord bore the appropriate name of Guest, for a time served also the purposes of a corn-exchange and post-office. Schools, chapels, and even

A Building Boom

"BLUE ANCHOR" TAVERN, PHILADELPHIA

printing houses, soon appeared, and there were many visits from the Indians, who took delight in bringing peltries as presents for "Father Penn."

The second assembly of the province convened at Philadelphia in March, 1683. Through these representatives, Penn offered the people a new charter. It was in its terms so fair and liberal, that it was accepted without an opposing voice. This charter established a republican form of government, with religious toleration, and Penn went further than any other proprietor in giving up his chartered

Second Assembly of the Province, 1683

rights to the appointment of officers. He, indeed, gave more than the people had a right to expect.

In the latter part of 1682, a modest house was built for the founder's use. It stood between First and Second streets, in Letitia Court, and was not torn down until two hundred years later. There the good founder made his home, and devoted himself to the interests of the people whom he loved with an abiding, fatherly affection. He would have been glad to spend the remainder of his days there, but it became necessary for him to return to England. Lord Baltimore had gone thither, and was urging his claim to the territory from Philadelphia to Cape Henlopen. Penn saw that he must defend his rights; and it may be added that, after an extended trial, the Committee on Trades and Plantations gave their decision in his favor.

Penn's Departure for England, 1684

He sailed for England in the summer of 1684, bearing with him the veneration and love of the whole people. He left the government of the province in the hands of five members of the council, with Thomas Lloyd as President. When the founder looked over the work he had done, he was surely warranted in writing: "I must, without vanity, say, that I have led the greatest colony into America that ever any man did upon private credit; and the most prosperous beginnings that ever were in it are to be found among us." In his farewell to the colonists, he said: "My love and my life are to and with you, and no water can quench it, nor distance bring it to an end. I have been with you, cared over you, and served you with unfeigned love; and you are beloved of me and dear to me beyond utterance. I bless you in the name and power of the Lord, and may God bless you with His righteousness, peace and plenty, all the land over!"

Penn Delayed in England

Penn had been in England only a few months, when Charles II. died, and his brother James ascended the throne. The new King and Penn had been personal friends for years, a fact which now involved the Quaker in grave peril. It was soon noted that James was under the influence of the Jesuits, and Penn was suspected of favoring that order. After James was driven from the throne by revolution, Penn was arrested and tried three times on the charge of treason, but was acquitted in each instance. No one who studies the character of William Penn can incline to the belief that he was ever guilty of acting the hypocrite.

Various troubles kept Penn in England for fifteen years, during

PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS

which period important events and changes took place in Pennsylvania. In April, 1691, the Three Lower Counties on the Delaware took offense at the action of the Council at Philadelphia, withdrew from the union of Pennsylvania, and were allowed a separate Deputy-Governor. Such misrepresentations came across the ocean, that William and Mary, in 1692, took away Penn's rights as Governor of the province, and placed control of the colony in the hands of Governor Fletcher, of New York. Fletcher, in the spring of 1693, reunited the Three Lower Counties with Pennsylvania, and made William Markham his Deputy-Governor.

Secession of Delaware, 1691

Penn was never without powerful friends at court, and through the intercession of a number of them all his rights were restored to him in the summer of 1694. The changes, however, had caused a great deal of financial and political trouble in Pennsylvania, and Penn's own persecution robbed him of all his fortune. In 1699, he sailed with his daughter and second wife for Philadelphia, where he arrived in the month of December. An astonishing scene met his gaze. The city contained more than two thousand inhabitants, and the province fully twenty thousand. Philadelphia had increased faster during the first few years of its existence than did New York in half a century.

Penn's Rights Restored

It cannot, however, be said that this prosperity was wholly beneficial. The all-potent moral power upon which Penn had relied was gone, and the people clamored for the political privileges which were promised them by those who made the laws during his absence. He complied, and gave them a new constitution, in November, 1701, so liberal that it satisfied every one. He was pained at the demand of the Three Lower Counties for a separate government, but he granted it in 1702. The first independent legislature in Delaware assembled at New Castle in 1703. This was continued until the Revolution, although the two provinces remained under the same Governor.

First Independent Legislature in Delaware, 1703

Penn's residence, while in the city, was the "Slate Roof House," in Second Street, on the corner of Norris's Alley; but in the spring he moved to a roomy structure, near Bristol, on the Delaware. The place after two centuries still bore the name of "Penn's Manor."

The founder of the commonwealth sailed for England in October, 1701. Now that adversity had come to him, his misfortunes increased, and matters went wrong, not only at home, but in the province. Andrew Hamilton, who was left as Deputy,

Penn's Return to England, 1701

died, and was succeeded by John Evans, who quickly made himself disliked. His private character was as bad as Lord Cornbury's, and the people would have revolted in 1709 had he not been succeeded by John Gookin. The latter was stern and uncompromising and soon after his arrival he made a requisition upon the province for its quota of men to fight against the French.

The Quakers and Wars

Now, as is well known, a Quaker's faith forbids him to give any aid in prosecuting war. He is a non-combatant, ready to die, but not to fight, for his belief. Had the assembly been less wise, they would have found themselves in an embarrassing situation. With warm expressions of loyalty to the Queen,* they begged that the requisition might not be enforced, and asked permission, at the same time, to send her Majesty a present. The present was in the form of money, and was received willingly enough, for the sum was sufficiently large to hire elsewhere the fighting quota of the province.

Death of Penn, 1718

Penn found on his arrival in England that his steward had robbed him of all his fortune, and he was so hopelessly involved that he lay in prison nearly a year on account of debt. He secured his release by mortgaging his province, and was about to negotiate for its sale, when he was stricken with paralysis. This stayed all proceedings, though he lingered until 1718, when he quietly passed away.†

Sir William Keith succeeded Gookin as Governor in 1717, but was removed from office in 1725, being succeeded by Patrick Gordon. By the will of Penn, the proprietorship of the province was left to his wife and three sons, John, Thomas, and Richard. It remained in them and their heirs until the Revolution, when their rights were purchased for a large sum by the State of Pennsylvania.‡ The prosperity of Pennsylvania continued without interruption. At one time the immigration of the Germans and Irish became so large that a tax of five shillings per head was imposed to prevent their gaining ascendancy over the Friends. Governor Gordon died in 1736, and the aged Logan ruled for two years, when George Thomas became Governor, and was succeeded in 1748 by James Hamilton.

Subsequent History of Pennsylvania to the French and Indian War

*Queen Anne (1702-1714).

†In his 75th year.

‡Penn's proprietary rights were, in 1790, bought up for a pension of $20,000 a year, payable to the eldest male descendant of the founder's second wife. In 1884, this payment was commuted for the sum of $335,000.

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